DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 058 223 24 TE 002 743

AUTHOR Golub, Lester S.; And Others
TITLE Present and Proposed Needs, Objectives, and Components of a Language Learning Program.
INSTITUTION Wisconsin Univ., Madison. Research and Development Center for Learning and Re-Education.
SPONS AGENCY Office of Education (DHEW), Washington, D.C. Bureau of Research.
REPORT NO Theor-Pap-29
BUREAU NO BR-5-0216
PUB DATE Sep 71
CONTRACT OEC-5-10-154
NOTE 88p.; Report from the Reading and Related Language Arts Project, Language Arts in Writing

EDRS PRICE MF-$0.65 HC-$3.29
DESCRIPTORS Concept Teaching; Discovery Learning; *Educational Objectives; Educational Research; *Elementary School Curriculum; Grammar; Handwriting Skills; *Language Arts; Learning Processes; Literature Reviews; *Oral Communication; Speech; Spelling; Teaching Techniques; Textbook Evaluation; *Written Language

ABSTRACT

The general purpose of this paper is twofold. One is to survey the research and literature on the learning of oral and written language in the elementary schools. The other is to propose a statement of needs, objectives, and components for an oral and written language program for elementary grade children. The method used for this study consists of five steps: (1) A survey and consensus of knowledge expressed by (a) language scholars and researchers, (b) curriculum specialists, and (c) teachers and other practitioners; (2) A survey of materials and methods presented in current textbooks for teachers and students; (3) A survey of students' and teachers' future needs in school and society; (4) Statements of needs and objectives of an elementary oral and written language program; and (5) A proposal for the components of such a program. The results of each of these steps are presented in this paper. (Author)

OE-BR
TE
50216
PA24

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL OFFICE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY.

EDO 58223

THEORETICAL PAPER NO. 29

PRESENT AND PROPOSED NEEDS, OBJECTIVES, AND COMPONENTS OF A LANGUAGE LEARNING PROGRAM

REPORT
ARTS

WISCONSIN RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT
CENTER FOR
COGNITIVE LEARNING

ED 012 003 143

UNIVERSITATIS WISCONSINENSIS SIGILLUM
NUMEN LUMEN

ED 058223

Theoretical Paper No. 29

PRESENT AND PROPOSED NEEDS, OBJECTIVES, AND COMPONENTS OF A LANGUAGE LEARNING PROGRAM

By Lester S. Golub, Wayne C. Fredrick,
and Robert A. Barganz

Report from the Reading and Related Language Arts
Project, Language Arts in Writing

Dr. Lester S. Golub, Principal Investigator

Wisconsin Research and Development
Center for Cognitive Learning
The University of Wisconsin
Madison, Wisconsin

September 1971

IE 002 743

Published by the Wisconsin Research and Development Center for Cognitive Learning, supported in part as a research and development center by funds from the United States Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. The opinions expressed herein do not necessarily reflect the position or policy of the Office of Education and no official endorsement by the Office of Education should be inferred.

Center No. C-03 / Contract OE 5-10-154

NATIONAL EVALUATION COMMITTEE

Samuel Brownell
Professor of Urban Education
Graduate School
Yale University

Launor F. Carter
Senior Vice President on
Technology and Development
System Development Corporation

Francis S. Chase
Professor
Department of Education
University of Chicago

Henry Chauncey
President
Educational Testing Service

Martin Deutsch
Director, Institute for
Developmental Studies
New York Medical College

Jack Edling
Director, Teaching Research
Division
Oregon State System of Higher
Education

Elizabeth Koontz
Wage and Labor Standards
Administration, U.S.
Department of Labor,
Washington

Roderick McPhee
President
Punahou School, Honolulu

G. Wesley Sowards
Director, Elementary Education
Florida State University

Patrick Suppes
Professor
Department of Mathematics
Stanford University

***Benton J. Underwood**
Professor
Department of Psychology
Northwestern University

RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT CENTER POLICY REVIEW BOARD

Leonard Berkowitz
Chairman
Department of Psychology

Archie A. Buchmiller
Deputy State Superintendent
Department of Public Instruction

Robert E. Grinder
Chairman
Department of Educational
Psychology

Russell J. Hosler
Professor, Curriculum
and Instruction

Clauston Jenkins
Assistant Director
Coordinating Committee for
Higher Education

Herbert J. Klausmeier
Director, R & D Center
Professor of Educational
Psychology

Stephen C. Kleene
Dean, College of
Letters and Science

Donald J. McCarty
Dean
School of Education

Ira Sharkansky
Associate Professor of Political
Science

B. Robert Tabachnick
Chairman, Department
of Curriculum and
Instruction

Henry C. Weinlick
Executive Secretary
Wisconsin Education Association

M. Crawford Young
Associate Dean
The Graduate School

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

Edgar F. Borgatta
Brittingham Professor of
Sociology

Anne E. Buchanan
Project Specialist
R & D Center

Robin S. Chapman
Research Associate
R & D Center

Robert E. Davidson
Assistant Professor,
Educational Psychology

Frank H. Farley
Associate Professor,
Educational Psychology

Russell J. Hosler
Professor of Curriculum and
Instruction and of Business

***Herbert J. Klausmeier**
Director, R & D Center
Professor of Educational
Psychology

Wayne Otto
Professor of Curriculum and
Instruction (Reading)

Robert G. Petzold
Associate Dean of the School
of Education
Professor of Curriculum and
Instruction and of Music

FACULTY OF PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATORS

Vernon L. Allen
Professor of Psychology

Ted Czajkowski
Assistant Professor of Curriculum
and Instruction

Robert E. Davidson
Assistant Professor of
Educational Psychology

Gary A. Davis
Associate Professor of
Educational Psychology

M. Vere DeVault
Professor of Curriculum and
Instruction (Mathematics)

Frank H. Farley
Associate Professor of Educational
Psychology

Lester S. Golub
Lecturer in Curriculum and
Instruction and in English

John G. Harvey
Associate Professor of
Mathematics and of Curriculum
and Instruction

Herbert J. Klausmeier
Director, R & D Center
Professor of Educational
Psychology

Donald Lange
Assistant Professor of Curriculum
and Instruction

James Moser
Assistant Professor of Mathematics
Education; Visiting Scholar

Wayne Otto
Professor of Curriculum and
Instruction (Reading)

Milton O. Pella
Professor of Curriculum and
Instruction (Science)

Thomas A. Romberg
Associate Director, R & D Center
Professor of Mathematics and of
Curriculum and Instruction

B. Robert Tabachnick
Chairman, Department
of Curriculum and
Instruction

Richard L. Venezky
Assistant Professor of English
and of Computer Sciences

Alan Voelker
Assistant Professor of Curriculum
and Instruction

Larry Wilder
Assistant Professor of Curriculum
and Instruction

Peter Wolff
Assistant Professor of Educational
Psychology

MANAGEMENT COUNCIL

Herbert J. Klausmeier
Director, R & D Center
V.A.C. Henmon Professor of
Educational Psychology

Mary R. Quilling
Director
Technical Development Program

Thomas A. Romberg
Associate Director

James Walter
Director
Dissemination Program

Dan G. Woolpert
Director
Operations and Business

* COMMITTEE CHAIRMAN

STATEMENT OF FOCUS

The Wisconsin Research and Development Center for Cognitive Learning focuses on contributing to a better understanding of cognitive learning by children and youth and to the improvement of related educational practices. The strategy for research and development is comprehensive. It includes basic research to generate new knowledge about the conditions and processes of learning and about the processes of instructions, and the subsequent development of research-based instructional materials, many of which are designed for use by teachers and others for use by students. These materials are tested and refined in school settings. Throughout these operations behavioral scientists, curriculum experts, academic scholars, and school people interact, insuring that the results of Center activities are based soundly on knowledge of subject matter and cognitive learning and that they are applied to the improvement of educational practice.

This Theoretical Paper is from the English Language Learning Program, Phase II of Project 204. The general objective of the English Language Learning Program is to develop needs and specifications for instructional materials and procedures in oral and written language in the elementary school. Prototypic instructional materials in oral and written language learning are developed from the specifications for this program. Involved in the program are teachers, English language arts coordinators, linguists, psychologists, and scholars in English language and language learning. Research is conducted to refine the program and to generate new knowledge which will be incorporated into this instructional system.

CONTENTS

		Page
	Abstract	vii
I.	The Results of a Survey of Language Scholars, Specialists, and Teachers	1
	Interrelatedness of Speaking, Reading, and Writing	1
	Environment and Language	1
	Vocabulary	2
	Handwriting	2
	Spelling	3
	Writing	3
	Disadvantaged Children and Language Learning	5
	Summary of Needs	6
	Some General Recommendations for Teaching the Native Language	7
II.	Concepts Found in Current Language Arts Textbooks	9
	Concepts for Teachers	9
	List of Concepts	9
	Comments	40
	Concepts for Elementary Pupils	40
	List of Concepts	41
	Comments	72
	Summary of Needs	73
III.	Students' and Teachers' Future Needs in School, Society, and Culture	75
	Summary of Future Needs of Teachers and Students	77
IV.	Proposed Components of an Oral and Written Language Learning Program	79
V.	References	81

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure		
1	A Model of Objectives for Teaching Language as Human Discourse and Communication	80

ABSTRACT

The general purpose of this paper is twofold. One is to survey the research and literature on the learning of oral and written language in the elementary schools. The other is to propose a statement of needs, objectives, and components for an oral and written language program for elementary grade children.

The method used for this study consists of five steps: (1) A survey and consensus of knowledge expressed by (a) language scholars and researchers, (b) curriculum specialists, and (c) teachers and other practitioners; (2) A survey of materials and methods presented in current textbooks for teachers and students; (3) A survey of students' and teachers' future needs in school and society; (4) Statements of needs and objectives of an elementary oral and written language program; and (5) A proposal for the components of such a program. The results of each of these steps is presented in this paper.

I

THE RESULTS OF A SURVEY OF LANGUAGE SCHOLARS, SPECIALISTS, AND TEACHERS

INTERRELATEDNESS OF SPEAKING, READING, AND WRITING

Leading educators from Great Britain, Canada, and the United States discussed at Dartmouth College the teaching of English in the elementary and secondary grades. The results of this conference illuminated the conflict between the subject-matter and the child-centered curriculum approaches favored by the Americans and the British respectively. (O'Neil & Dixon, 1969; Muller, 1967; Dixon, 1967.) The 1968 report of the National Council of Teachers of English NCTE Committee to Review Curriculum Guides found that in even the best of guides no consistent trends in the teaching of oral and written language were evident (NCTE Committee, 1968).

In 1966, Instructor reported, following a survey of 1,164 elementary school language arts programs, that the greatest trend was towards an integrated language program, in which written language was only third in a five-place position of importance. In all cases, the textbook dominated the curriculum.

A study of correlations between language ability, reading level, intelligence, socio-economic status, and sex indicates that writing ability correlated best with language ability and reading level (Woodfin, 1968).

Studies of writing ability tend to indicate dependence upon oral language development. Loban's (1963) longitudinal study indicates that Third Graders who write well are also above average in speaking and reading. Fifth Grade children studied by Hughes (1953) indicate a high correlation in achievement in language abilities. Golub (1969) also tends to substantiate Loban's findings.

It can be concluded that a child's ability to use and manipulate language orally is a prerequisite for reading and writing and that oral language learning should accompany and complement reading and written language learning.

ENVIRONMENT AND LANGUAGE

Factors of home and school environment which affect oral language development have been summarized by May's (1966) research. He concludes:

(1) An institutionalized background has a detrimental effect on oral language development.

(2) The amount of adult contact a child encounters influences positively the oral language development of the child.

(3) The positive quality of adult contact that a child encounters tends to free him of articulatory defects such as stuttering and language retardation.

(4) Children from low socioeconomic status families tend to demonstrate a lower level of cognitive ability and oral language proficiency.

(5) Girls tend to develop oral language ability more rapidly than boys, but the best boys excel the best girls while the worst boys are far worse than the worst girls.

(6) Parental language patterns, especially the educational level of the mother, determine the language patterns of children.

(7) Teachers who demonstrate the qualities of democratic leadership, warmth, and organization generally stimulate student language participation in the classroom.

(8) Peer influence tends to affect students' oral language performance more than teacher language models do.

School organizational matters are inconclusive regarding children's language performance. Goodlad's (1954) study of class size shows it to be unrelated to achievement; however, Schellenberg (1959) found greater freedom of expression in small groups than in large groups.

The factors of home and school environment which influence language learning tend to indicate that a warm, individualized relationship between the child and an adult, especially the mother or mother surrogate, is an extremely important factor in initial language learning. As the child becomes more socialized, the pressures of the peer group start to influence language learning more than adults. These factors must be taken into consideration in developing a language learning environment.

VOCABULARY

Vocabulary is related to writing and reading as well as to oral language development. Vocabulary development is also associated with the students' thought and concept growth, since knowing a word means knowing the referent.

Many studies of vocabulary deal with the size of vocabulary at certain grade levels. These studies are not necessarily consistent. Kolson's (1960) study indicates the First Grader's vocabulary to consist of 3,728 words. Shibles (1959) found the mean basic vocabulary of First Graders to be 18,924 words, and Ames (1964) established a mean basic vocabulary of 12,456 words. Lorge and Chall (1963), in considering the limitations of methods of collecting word counts, conclude that the vocabulary of a First Grader is probably a few thousands.

Russell and Saadeh (1962) found an increase at each higher grade level of word definitions as well as an increase in new words learned as the child develops. Loeb's (1957) study of Fourth, Fifth, and Sixth Grade students showed relationships between vocabulary, I.Q., socioeconomic status, parents' level of education and student's attitude toward reading.

The following are some carefully constructed word frequency lists:

(1) A Combined Word List (Buckingham & Dolch, 1936)

(2) A Basic Life Spelling Vocabulary (Fitzgerald, 1951)

(3) A Basic Writing Vocabulary: 10,000 Words Most Commonly Used in Writing (Horn, 1926)

(4) A Basic Vocabulary of Elementary School Children (Rinsland, 1945)

(5) The Teacher's Word Book of 30,000 Words (Thorndike & Lorge, 1944)

A study of seven basal reader series by Olson (1966) has shown that not all basal readers introduce new words at the same rate nor do they carry the same vocabulary load. Repp's (1960) comparison of five Third Grade arithmetic books shows that 60 or more new words can appear on a page whereas approximately one-fifth of the pages introduced no new words. The Dale-Eichholz (1960) study of children's vocabulary at Fourth, Sixth, Eighth, Tenth, and Twelfth Grades shows that there are at least 25,000 words known to at least two-thirds of the students. Wilson's (1963) analysis of compositions by 230 Third Grade children indicates that these children used a total of 4,718 words and that a decided growth away from the basic 2,000 words appears in Third Grade.

Two conclusions drawn from word frequency studies indicate that: (1) a selected vocabulary should be taught in the First through Third Grade, but in order to be a realistic vocabulary, infrequently used words and content-specific words should be taught throughout a child's school years; (2) special attention should be focused on vocabulary study in specific content areas such as math, science, social studies, and mechanics where the introduction of new vocabulary is unsystematic and often burdensome. In all vocabulary learning, the teacher should remember that vocabulary learning is closely associated with concept learning and that both the new word and its referent must be clearly understood by the child.

HANDWRITING

The mechanics of handwriting are motor skills and are taught in the elementary schools with the transition from manuscript to cursive taking place between the Second and Third Grades. The optimum length for handwriting periods is 15 minutes, usually five times a week (Committee on Research in Basic Skills, 1960). Klausmeier, et al. (1968), have indicated that perhaps the maximum benefit of individualized handwriting instruction is

derived early in the sequence of cursive writing skill development. Handwriting is best taught as a tool skill rather than a thinking skill and since Erlebacher and Herrick (1961) indicate that children today write no worse than those of 50 years ago, the most that is needed in the area of handwriting is an individualized rapid program for children ready to make the transition from manuscript to cursive.

SPELLING

Although spelling might be classified as a tool skill, it is more than that since it deals more with cognitive and attitudinal learning rather than with motor skill learning. Spelling is closely related to reading and vocabulary development as well as social behavior. A person with poor handwriting can, as an adult, learn to use a typewriter or hire a typist. A person who cannot spell is socially handicapped in the professional world.

The English language, with its history of word borrowings, sound shifts, and non-isometric phoneme-grapheme representation, confronts the teacher of English as a serious and difficult teaching area. For this reason, it is more likely that teachers of English will turn to commercial materials rather than to research in the teaching of spelling.

Investigation by Hodges and Rudorf (1965) indicates that when phoneme-grapheme correspondences are tabulated, in terms of their environments and stress features, remarkable consistency was found. Berquist (1967) using a sample of 17,000 words found that 88.85 percent of the phoneme-grapheme relationships were determined by phonological factors; 6.61 percent by stress factors, and 3.96 percent by morphological factors. In spite of the high percentage of words whose spellings are phonologically determined, children are frequently called upon to spell words for which phonological rules do not apply (Groff, 1961; Petty, 1956).

Richmond (1960) has provided teachers with a core list of 2,500 words which Sixth Grade children use 95% of the time in their writing. Furness (1958) concludes that intelligence and spelling achievement do not seem to be as closely related as intelligence and other school subjects. Grothe (1966) found that spelling awareness was dependent upon intelligence and academic ability, but not consistently maintained. Furness (1956) indicates that there is a .80-.85 correlation between reading and spelling test scores. Mazurkiewicz and Lamana (1966) have shown, through a comparison of 2 years of reading training by either Initial Teaching Alphabet (i/t/a) or Traditional Orthography (T.O.), that the group receiving i/t/a reading training showed spelling superiority.

Research concerning the effect of method of teaching spelling contributes some useful conclusions. Personke and Yee (1968) present five channels of useful spelling behavior: (1) a large store of memorized words, (2) skills in auditory discrimination, (3) good spelling awareness, (4) good dictionary skills, (5) good study skills for internalizing words for future use. Gates (1931) and Horn (1960) have shown the test-study procedure to be superior to the commonly used study-test procedure. Horn (1954; 1960) indicates that list presentation is more satisfactory than contextual presentation, but Freyberg (1964) qualifies these results by indicating that better spellers achieve more through self-compiled lists whereas poor spellers do better with teacher-provided lists. Fishman, Keller, and Atkinson (1968) show evidence that short distributed practice is better than mass practice. Machine-programmed spelling instruction does not show significant gains; Friedman's study (1967) shows Second Graders do significantly better with a traditional, textbook approach.

Conclusions from this summarized research indicate that the teaching of spelling should follow a regular order and should emphasize the predictable phoneme-grapheme correspondences. The use of i/t/a or some other phonemic alphabet might help students visualize sound-letter patterns of English orthography. The test-study process and the student-generated list should be emphasized in the process of teaching spelling. Short, distributed modules of time should be utilized in spelling procedure and spelling and vocabulary activities should persist throughout the curriculum.

WRITING

In 1963, the NCTE Committee on the State of Knowledge about composition published its report, Research in Written Composition (Braddock, Lloyd-Jones, & Schoer, 1963). From a collection of 504 studies, only five were selected as "most soundly based," those by Buxton (1958), Harris (1962), Kincaid (1953), Smith (1931), and Becker (1958). Rarely have research designs limited the variables, the subjects, or the method of evaluation. Quantifiable variables such as length, vocabulary, repetitions, mechanical (transcription) errors,

and embeddings can be tallied; but matters of rhetorical effectiveness and expression cannot be easily scored. The best indicators of a child's writing ability are linguistic variables, especially in such areas as word count, sentence embedding, and modification and expansion of the verb string (Golub & Fredrick, 1970).

Woc 'fin (1968) found correlations of writing ability of Third Graders to be highest with language ability and reading. Woodfin's means for evaluating writing included effectiveness of expression of ideas, effectiveness of the organization of ideas, number of words, and number of words written per minute.

Part of a longitudinal study by Sampson (1964) in which composition was assessed by a subordination index, a vocabulary rating, and an impression rating, showed positive correlations between the writing of 10 year-olds and other linguistic variables measured at ages 2 1/2, 5, and 8.

Loban (1963) also found that those elementary students who wrote well at Grade Three were also above average in speaking and reading. Loban also indicates that the socio-economic position of the child's family is related to writing ability.

The effect of instructional variables and different stimuli on writing ability suggests that preliminary readiness for the writing task can improve its quality (Golub & Fredrick, 1970).

Oral language practice has been reported as leading to improved writing. Miller and Ney (1968) using Fourth Grade suburban students, found that systematic oral language drilling produced greater freedom and facility in writing, significantly more use of structures in writing that had been practiced, and more complex sentences after training in oracy. Barnes (1964) found that the writing ability of Second Graders improved, based on word length, variety of vocabulary, and imagination, after using small word cards and grooved boards in assembling sentences.

Downing, Fyfe, and Lyon (1967) report that improved writing occurs when children are taught to read using I.T.A. with word count, vocabulary, and word repetition as measures.

Horne (1967) found that teaching the use and understanding of figurative language to an experimental group of Sixth Graders produced greater use of such expressions in post-training writing.

Stimuli for a writing assignment may lead to differences in content and style. In Nelson's (1965) study, the topic for writing, whether sensory or abstract, showed no significant differences in volume although it did affect content.

Sharples (1968) experimented on the effect of different stimuli on creativity in composition. Four types of stimuli were presented to 10 year-olds: a seaside scene, a narrative verse, a metallic crash, and a large rusty key to handle. The variables studied in addition to stimuli were form of writing (narration, description, exposition), level of achievement (quartile placement), school population (suburban-professional, urban-skilled, urban-nonskilled, and rural with no particular occupation of parent), quality of writing (high or low), and sex. Results showed that:

(1) Stimuli type affected the form of written response.

(2) Level of achievement was not related to the form of response.

(3) Different school populations produced significantly different forms.

(4) Low quality of creativity was significantly associated with exposition, whereas high quality of creativity was associated with complex narration.

(5) Girls wrote more structured material and boys used exposition more.

An interesting outcome of this study is that 35% of the subjects used the same form of writing for all four stimuli, suggesting a persistent set which Sharples feels is a reflection of school experience. These "persistent" writers produced a significantly higher proportion of narratives and expositions and tended to be low in achievement in school. Sharples concludes that creativity cannot be developed through the mere application of a classroom device.

The time available for writing can affect its quality. Woodfin (1968) found that Third Graders who were allowed zero to 225 minutes to write did so significantly better than those allowed zero to 90 minutes. Those allowed zero to 90 minutes did so better than those limited to 20 minutes.

From these studies, curriculum designers in children's writing can conclude that:

(1) Children can profit from instruction in the following ways:
  (a) They can learn about various forms of writing,

(b) They can learn to use certain linguistic structures,

(c) They can learn to use certain rhetorical devices.

(2) Differences in children's writing produced by socioeconomic differences must be overcome at an early age, preferably pre-school.

(3) Creativity in writing must be deliberately taught so that environmental sets do not inhibit the childs creativity of written expression.

(4) Time must be provided in the elementary curriculum for writing activities.

DISADVANTAGED CHILDREN AND LANGUAGE LEARNING

The language of disadvantaged students is of interest to educators because these students, especially black, Indian, Puerto Rican, and Appalacian children speak a "deviant" dialect from the so-called "standard dialect" of their advantaged brothers and sisters. The definition of a "deviant" dialect might be: (1) different or nonstandard language patterns used by members of an identifiable speech community, (2) the reaction categories the standard speaker displays which place the deviant speaker and his dialect in an inferior social role.

On the other hand, language scholars do not admit to any dialect as being intrinsically better than another. A language dialect which is "good" or standard or neutral does not always work to good advantage in every condition. Such a condition is characteristic of the position a speaker of a deviant dialect finds himself. Within a bound geographical or social setting the deviant dialect user is comfortable, able to communicate, and very acceptable by group norms. However, once outside these speech boundaries, the opposite is very likely true.

The speaker of a deviant dialect must learn a neutral dialect so that he can obtain social and economic mobility as well as dialectic mobility. On the other hand, it is too simple to think that the disadvantaged student is going to learn a standard or neutral dialect at the expense of losing his nonstandard dialect, or that he is going to learn the standard dialect when the teacher refuses to accept or learn some of the characteristics of his deviant dialect. Language is human behavior which is based upon a reciprocal feedback system, and if this system does not exist, language learning does not take place. No human message demanding a response, oral or written, should be sent to the dead letter office. The language curriculum for disadvantaged children must include means for this population to achieve social and economic mobility.

In the study of the oral language of First Grade Negro, Spanish-surnamed, and Anglo children, Wakefield and Silvaroli (1969) found that an analysis of variance of the total sentence patterns was not significantly different. These researchers conclude that schools should adjust materials more to students' economic background than to their ethnic background.

Bailey (1968) points out that disadvantaged students must be equipped with the necessary linguistic tools to enter the mainstream of American life. The consensus of opinion among linguistic scholars is that a standard English dialect be added as another dialect rather than replacing the localized one. However, this is easier said than done since the contrast between dialects is not as evident as that between languages. Loban (1968) believes that this addition of a standard dialect must be in the speaker's language repertoire so that he can elect to use it for both economic and social purposes.

In approaching a program for teaching a standard dialect to speakers of a deviant dialect one needs: (1) to determine which standard English dialect these speakers find most acceptable, and (2) to distinguish the deviations which are evident in contrasting the deviant dialect with the preferred standard dialect. Bailey (1968) finds that Negro dialect is systematic and is only partially similar to standard English. Loflin (1967) concurs with Bailey and adds that the appropriate contextual setting for the use of each dialect should be determined preceding instruction.

A listing of phonological deviations is presented by Burks and Guilford (1969). Loflin (1967) has examined deviations such as morphophonemic, verb auxilliary, and transformational structures. As a result of their work in Chicago, Gladney and Leaverton (1968) conclude that the focus of language instruction should be determined by taped samples.

How to teach a second dialect is of primary consideration to teachers of disadvantaged children. The method suggested most frequently is one similar to that used in foreign language instruction which stresses an audiolingual approach. Such a model of instruction stresses: (1) the systematic working on one pattern at a time and correcting only that pattern (Gladney & Leaverton, 1968), (2) using a variety of oral drills utilizing repetition,

substitution, completion, and transformation exercises (Slager, 1967); (3) introducing syntax and vocabulary enrichment (Slager, 1967); and (4) emphasizing the language situation rather than the morality and correctness issues (Gladney & Leaverton, 1968).

Loban's (1968) suggestions focus on the students' awareness of other dialects through observation, imitation, dramatic readings, and composition.

This type of audio-lingual approach to learning a standard dialect of English, sequenced from First to Twelfth Grade, will provide opportunity for students to speak this standard dialect in the school situation. Bereiter and Engelmann (1966) propose an audio-lingual language program for pre-school and Kindergarten level children. Their techniques are specific and forceful and have achieved their goals.

The contrast between the aduio-lingual approach and the traditional approach to learning a standard dialect, as seen by Crowley (1967), is that in the traditional method the child learns about standard language features and memorizes these facts about language; in the audio-lingual method the student acquires them as a part of his own language through the process of modeling, practice, reinforcement, and spaced practice.

Teachers of English have the responsibility to equip all students with the linguistic tool needed to become functional members in a variety of work and social settings. Instruction in language should provide for adaptability of language usage, oral or written, in different social settings. Working from a premise that all dialects are of equal human dignity but different in effectiveness in different settings, the realistic language curriculum must provide alternative dialect training. A form of the audio-lingual modern language. techniques is suggested for this purpose because of its stress on acquisition of language patterns rather than knowledge about language.

SUMMARY OF NEEDS

The summary of needs as derived from a survey of the literature on learning and teaching the native language follows:

1. Since abilities in the oral, written, and read modes of language are highly correlated, attention to all modes of discourse must be given.

2. Since oral language is a prerequisite for reading and writing, an oral language component should be represented in the curriculum.

3. Since a warm, individualized relationship between a child and an adult is an important factor in early language development, such a relationship is advisable between teacher and student in the primary grades.

4. Since peer influence on language learning increases with age, the classroom group needs to view discourse as a skill worth attaining.

5. Since vocabulary is related to thought and concept growth, referents as well as lexical items must be clearly understood by the child.

6. Since a selected vocabulary is represented in the materials used in the beginning years, a firm grounding of basic words should be established in oral and written discourse.

7. Since student vocabulary needs are determined by a variety of activities, instruction should provide for the less frequently encountered but realistic words students are required to know and to use.

8. Since vocabulary grows both in the number of words learned as well as the number of meanings attributed to each word, both new words and new meanings for old words should be learned.

9. Since a cross-disciplinary vocabulary is neither found nor reinforced in most beginning reading materials, special attention should be focused on content area vocabulary.

10. Since handwriting is best thought of as a tool skill, an individualized learning program may yield the greatest benefits.

11. Since a high percentage of word spellings are phonologically determined, the teaching of spelling should emphasize the phoneme-grapheme consistencies in a regular order.

12. Since the realistic spelling needs of students may include irregularly spelled words, the teacher should be able to use a variety of techniques with different spelling achievement groups, such as

the test-teach-test method or a phonemic alphabet.

13. Since measures of writing ability cover a wide spectrum, instruction should not focus on any one element to the sacrifice of others; rather, it should direct the learning of various forms of writing and the use of certain linguistic structures and rhetorical devices in writing.

14. Since ability in writing is highly correlated to other language areas, instruction should provide intensive remediation early in the school years for students of inhibitory language backgrounds.

15. Since the presentation of different stimuli may affect the quality of written discourse, preliminary readiness techniques should be employed.

16. Since some students may have a persistent set in written discourse, the direct teaching of creativity should be included in the curriculum.

17. Since the time provided for writing can affect its quality, adequate provision for this factor should be made for the range of abilities represented in the classroom.

18. Since dialect differences function as caste-class markers, a sense of dialect needs to be established so that no stigma is placed on valid "deviant" speech and writing patterns.

19. Since students are likely to cross dialect boundaries, provision must be made for alternative dialect training; to be most realistic, this training should use a form of the audio-lingual language teaching techniques.

20. Since dialect differences may interfere with phonological, morphological, and syntactic language factors, an instructional program should distinguish and emphasize the deviations in greatest contrast with the preferred standard dialect.

SOME GENERAL RECOMMENDATIONS FOR TEACHING THE NATIVE LANGUAGE

1. Oral and written discourse needs to be taught so that each mode aids the other.

2. More emphasis should be placed on the production and use of discourse and less upon its correctness.

3. Diverse oral and written activities should accompany reading and listening experiences.

4. Differences due to such variables as sex, status, physical attributes, and motivation need to be treated as assets or defects inasmuch as they decrease or increase the development of discourse.

5. Content needs to be redirected so that less is taught better, rather than attempting to introduce the thousands of available facts about usage, terminology, and mechanics.

6. Diagnostic methods for evaluating both oral and written language ability need to be developed.

7. Growth norms for oral and written language, similar to those available in reading, need to be developed.

8. Strategies for developing teacher warmth and democratic leadership must be considered.

9. Efficient means of oral and written language remediation need to be developed.

II

CONCEPTS FOUND IN CURRENT LANGUAGE ARTS TEXTBOOKS

CONCEPTS FOR TEACHERS

What happens in the elementary classroom is dependent upon several variables: the textbooks and student materials, the philosophy of the school and the teacher, the students themselves, and the English language arts preparation of the teachers. This section is intended as a selected representation of concepts taught to prospective elementary teachers through the language arts textbooks employed in these education courses.

The following four textbooks were selected for sampling: The Language Arts in Childhood Education (Burns & Lowe, 1966), The Language Arts in the Elementary School (Strickland, 1969), Developing Language Skills in the Elementary Schools (Greene & Petty, 1963), and Contemporary English in the Elementary School (Tiedt & Tiedt, 1967). Selection of the texts was made primarily on the bases of specificity within the text, recognition of the author(s), and the degree to which the text was current in both publication and classroom use.

The outline format in this section lists topics categorized under the headings of form—Oral, Oral and Written, and Written. Concepts and topics which occur in more than one text are indicated only once, with those items indicated at a low level not restated at a higher one, though reteaching may take place. In brief, what is provided is a compendium of current concepts, materials, and methods suggested as important to the oral and written language learning in the elementary grades.

LIST OF CONCEPTS

I. TOTAL ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PROGRAM

A. Oral Language Development

1. General objectives

    a. Linguistic fluency

        1) Ability to speak without hesitation
        2) Information about which to talk
        3) Vocabulary with which to speak
        4) Gradual movement toward use of standard English
        5) Familiarity with speech patterns

b. An extensive speaking vocabulary

1) Pronunciation
2) Meaning
3) Variety
4) Knowledge of usage levels

c. Effectiveness of speaking

1) Elements of successful speaking

a) Delivery
b) Voice
c) Content
d) Bearing

2) Specific parts of the speech

a) Introduction
b) Conclusion
c) Choice of topic
d) Use of words

3) Variety in style of presentation

a) Humor
b) Audience participation

2. Skills to be mastered:

a. Ease in speaking before a group or with individuals
b. Ease in giving or receiving a compliment
c. Absence of annoying mannerisms while speaking
d. Courtesy in giving attention to speaker
e. Pleasing voice, careful enunciation, and pronunciation
f. Clearness in making meaning known in a talk
g. Interest in presenting meaning in a talk
h. Ease and confidence in meeting a stranger, or accepting an introduction
i. Ease and confidence in introducing strangers
j. Ease and assurance in being greeted and returning a greeting
k. Ease and courtesy in asking and answering a question
l. Absence of listening in or rudely interrupting in groups
m. Absence of glaring errors in oral language usage
n. Sincerity and absence of affectation in all speech
o. Ability to tell a simple story interestingly
p. Ability to tell a simple incident or to make a simple explanation
q. Ability to give directions simply and clearly
r. Attitude of listening courteously as a member of an audience
s. Ability to make a simple announcement concerning a lost or found article
t. Ability to ask a favor with tact and courtesy
u. Ability to place a telephone call or answer a telephone call courteously
v. Ability to conduct an assembly, make announcements, and introduce the members
w. Ability to carry on an interesting conversation, observing common rules of courtesy, and having something interesting to contribute
x. Ability to ask for and engage in a conference with the teachers, or with some other individual in regard to problems of school concern

y. Knowledge of where to get material of interest, types of magazines, stories, references, and other information
z. Knowledge of the accepted thing to do in common social situations
a'. Knowledge of the elements that make a talk interesting
b'. Knowledge of the factors that make a pleasing voice
c'. Skill in remembering important items, anecdotes, jokes, and other items of use in making speeches and conversations interesting
d'. Sensitivity to the effect that posture has on speech
e'. Habit of standing well and breathing properly as aids to speech
f'. Correct enunciation

3. Specific areas of instruction:

a. Pattern practice

1) Repetition—Listen and repeat exactly as heard
2) Analogy—Repeat exactly with one change
3) Inflection—Change the form of a word
4) Completion—Finish the statement
5) Expansion—Use methods of expansion such as conjoining and embedding
6) Transformation—Change a sentence to negative or interrogative form
7) Restoration—Make a sentence from a group of words
8) Response—Answer or make a rejoinder
9) Suprasegmental practice (stress, pitch, juncture)—compare meaning with changes of each

b. Conversation

1) Principles of instruction

a) Conversation is a two-way process between a listener and a speaker, who exchange ideas in turn.
b) Conversation involves listening to the contributions of others and reacting to them.
c) Conversation is not random talk but involves real interaction about a subject of mutual interest.
d) Courtesy should prevail in the behavior of the participants even though the conversation may be informal.
e) Good conversationalists have a responsibility to themselves and others to be truthful and considerate in their remarks.
f) Good conversationalists at all times attempt to avoid aggressive or argumentative attitudes.

2) Habits and abilities necessary

a) A realization of the value of being informed on many suitable topics to talk about
b) The ability to be enthusiastic during conversation
c) A knowledge of and the ability to use a pleasing vocabulary
d) The ability to be a good listener
e) A knowledge of sources of interesting material
f) The ability to observe common courtesies in conversation
g) The ability to change the topic of conversation tactfully
h) The ability to talk without the use of distracting mannerisms
i) A knowledge of when and where it is not appropriate to talk
j) The ability to follow up an introduction with remarks designed to make all parties at ease

k) A sensitivity to the appropriateness of topics for certain occasions and people
l) The ability to use speech acceptable to the particular conversational situation

c. Telephoning

1) Necessary attitudes and abilities

a) Formulating messages, inquiries, orders, and other detailed information as concisely as possible before making a call
b) Identifying the speaker clearly and courteously when making or receiving a call
c) Explaining clearly and courteously the purpose of a call that is made
d) Speaking courteously and graciously as if one were speaking to the person face to face
e) Allowing the person who made the call to close the conversation
f) Asking permission to use another person's telephone
g) Placing calls at convenient times for the person one is calling
h) Avoiding monopolizing a party line

2) Specific techniques

a) Using the directory to find numbers
b) Getting the operator or dialing a number
c) Making emergency or special service calls
d) Placing long-distance calls

d. Discussion

1) Purposes

a) To secure information
b) To arrive at a better understanding
c) To answer a problem

2) Goals to teach

a) Stay on the topic
b) Take turns talking
c) Listen courteously to others
d) Attempt to make worthwhile contributions
e) Make concise statements and ask clear questions
f) Speak so that all may understand
g) Respect the opinions of others
h) Support statements with fact
i) Avoid repetition through careful listening
j) Distinguish between relevant and irrelevant material
k) Distinguish between fact and opinion
l) Reach a suitable conclusion

e. Story telling—Objectives

1) To put ideas in sequence
2) To compose sentences
3) To emphasize meaning with voice
4) To enrich vocabulary through the use of new words and meanings

5) To develop freedom and ease of expression
6) To appreciate simple and sometimes homely experiences
7) To enjoy the creation of interesting stories just for fun

f. Reporting

1) A shift from "shared" topics and freedom of expression and spontaneity in the primary grades to more attention to the selection of topics in the intermediate grades should be made
2) Elements increasing the effectiveness and interest of reports
   a) Good organization
   b) Language usage
   c) Posture
   d) Speech

g. Conducting meetings and conferences—Skills

1) Knowledge of duties of presiding officer or conference moderator, as well as those of subordinate officers
2) Knowledge of parliamentary procedure in a developmental sense

h. Giving announcements, directions, and explanations—Skills

1) Proper organization
2) Presentation in terms which will be understood by the audience
3) Present all essential information—who, what, when, where, and how
4) Observe correct language for the situation
5) Emphasize conciseness and clarity

i. Interviewing—Skills and abilities

1) Knowing clearly the purpose of the interview
2) Preparing for the interview by finding background information and leads for questions
3) Taking notes
4) Observing courtesies as to appointment times, questions asked, and appreciation for the interviewee's time and information

j. Dramatization—Goals

1) To provide opportunities for each child to gain socially: the timid child to become less timid, the aggressive child to learn to accept a minor role, the less academically inclined to achieve recognition
2) To pronounce words distinctly and correctly
3) To avoid errors in usage
4) To speak so that the whole audience can hear

k. Choral speech—Objectives

1) The improvement of voice quality
2) The development of improved habits of enunciation and articulation
3) The improvement of habits of pronunciation
4) The freeing of children from unhealthy inhibition and excessive shyness toward expression
5) A recognition of the importance of the audience and group effort in such forms of communication
6) Learning to keep voice modulated
7) The development of diction

8) The development of vocabulary
9) The development of understanding of meaning

1. Creative aspects—Opportunities for encouraging the joy of creation

1) Helping children develop a sensitivity to the rhythmic and beautiful elements of their own and other's speech
2) Providing children with many opportunities for sensory experiences to translate into words
3) Providing many and varied opportunities for children to talk freely about their experiences
4) Developing a feeling for words by reading and listening to poetry, rhymes, and rhythmic prose of particularly descriptive and moving language
5) Encouraging each child to contribute his "bit" to the pleasure of creative expression

B. Written Language Development

1. Goals to follow in developing attitudes:

a. To enjoy expressing ideas freely in an original way
b. To write with clarity on a selected topic
c. To organize ideas for a coherent presentation of information
d. To distinguish between fact and opinion and to avoid sweeping generalization
e. To use mechanical skills in composition to aid communication
f. To evaluate and edit individual work, and to rewrite when desirable
g. To appreciate the writing abilities of others, including classmates as well as published authors
h. To develop confidence in ability to write through many successful writing experiences
i. To develop ability to write to fullest ability

2. Steps in growth of written language

a. Dictation—Level One

1) Spontaneous expression of ideas - the teacher takes the material down exactly as the child gives it or assumes responsibility for arranging it into readable units
2) Expressing ideas in thought units or sentences in such form that the teacher can put them down
3) Dictating sentence units more skillfully and purposefully, with attention to the writing process and the purpose to be served
4) Learning suitable expression for various purposes - modification of form and tone
   a) Invitation
   b) Thank-you note
   c) Business request
   d) Note of congratulation or sympathy
5) Developing individual style by expressing one's thinking as colorfully and individually as possible

b. Dictation—Level Two

1) Dictating material for a purpose, but the child writing the greeting, signature, or a sentence or two to make the material his own
2) Dictating, but the child making his own copy, not using the teacher's or a duplicated copy

c. Writing with all the help the student needs

1) Doing own writing, turning to the teacher for help with spelling, letter form, spacing, and other matters. The content and expression are the child's own, but the teacher gives careful guidance in the matter of form to make it suit its purpose.
2) Doing own writing with less dependence upon the teacher, fewer requests for help. The teacher and the child check the first draft of the material together. The child then copies the material if the use to which it is to be put warrants it.

d. Writing with increasing independence

1) Writing with occasional help, and learning to use self-help materials in doing practical writing. Checking the first draft with the teacher and making a final copy, if need be. This stage is more apt to be found in the intermediate grades.
2) Writing, independent reading for errors and points in lacking in clarity, then checking the material with the teacher before completing the final copy
3) Specific areas of instruction

a. Handwriting—Basic goals

1) To encourage pupils to use handwriting as an effective means of expression and thought
2) To help each child discover how skill in handwriting will serve his needs
3) To strive for neatness and legibility with moderate speed in all the writing activities
4) To establish adequate practice periods which will provide training in handwriting at all grade levels
5) To analyze handwriting faults of individual pupils and seek their correction
6) To develop in all pupils a sense of personal pride, self-appraisal, and self-improvement in the handwriting skills
7) To develop correct posture and the proper use of writing tools
8) To develop skills
   a) Correct letter formation
   b) Good spacing between letters and words
   c) Uniform slant
   d) Satisfactory alignment
   e) Correct size of letters

b. Spelling—Children should learn to spell the words they most often will need to spell as adults

1) Attitudes to develop
   a) To recognize that correct spelling is important to effective communication
   b) To create a desire to spell correctly all the words the student writes
   c) To instill a desire to spell correctly an increasing number of words and to understand and use words more effectively
   d) To write out words except the common abbreviations: A.M., P.M., doz., qt., in., ft., lb., bu., Mr., Mrs., Dr., St., and R.D.

2) Develop the habits of
   a) Always being concerned about the correct spelling of the words used in writing
   b) Proofreading one's writing carefully
   c) Using reliable sources to determine the correct spelling of unknown or doubtful words
   d) Following a specific study procedure in learning the spelling of new words
3) Develop the ability to
   a) Recognize all the letters of the alphabet in capital and lower case forms in both printed and handwritten materials
   b) Write all the letters of the alphabet in a legible manner in both capital and lower case forms
   c) Alphabetize words
   d) Hear words accurately as they are spoken
   e) Pronounce words clearly and accurately
   f) See printed or written words accurately
   g) Group and connect the letters of a word properly
   h) Use properly any punctuation elements important to spelling
   i) Use a dictionary, including the use of diacritical markings and guide words
   j) Use phonetic aids in arriving at the proper pronunciation of unfamiliar words
   k) Use the most effective spelling rules
   l) Use effective procedures in learning to spell new words

c. Punctuation—Rules accounting for an average of 80% of the punctuation needs in elementary school

1) A period is used to mark the end of a complete sentence which is neither mandatory, interrogatory, nor exclamatory.
2) The colon is used after several words used as the salutation of a business letter.
3) A comma should be used after the complimentary close of a business letter.
4) The apostrophe is used in forming the possessive case of singular nouns.
5) The apostrophe is used to indicate the omission of a letter from the interior of a contraction.
6) The comma is always used before the abbreviation "etc." when the latter is in the interior of a sentence.
7) A comma is used to separate independent clauses joined by "and" if there is a change of subject.
8) The interrogation point is used at the end of a whole sentence used as a question.
9) The comma is used to set off a dependent "if" clause preceding the main clause.
10) The comma is used to separate nouns in series when they are not connected by a conjunction.
11) A direct quotation at the end of a sentence may be separated from its preceding introductory material by a comma.
12) Quotation marks are used before and after a direct quotation at the end of the sentence.
13) The period is placed inside the quotation marks at the end of directly quoted discourse.
14) A period is used to separate dollars and cents.
15) A comma should be used after the salutation of an informal letter.

16) A comma is used after the last word of a series of words, phrases, or clauses, or letters not connected by a conjunction.
17) The semicolon may be used between two coordinate clauses which are not connected by a conjunction
18) A colon is placed after a single word used as the salutation of a business letter.
19) Quotation marks may be used to enclose the titles of books.
20) A period should be placed inside quotation marks. (This variant covers situations not involving quoted conversation.)
21) A period is used after the abbreviations "Mr." and "Mrs."
22) A comma should be used after the complimentary close of an informal letter.
23) Parentheses may be used to enclose sums of money in business letters.
24) The comma is used to separate prepositional phrases in series when they are not connected by a conjunction.
25) A comma may be used to separate any other elements which might otherwise be improperly joined in reading.
26) Commas are used to set off a noun in apposition in the interior of a sentence.
27) A comma is used to set off a noun in apposition at the end of a sentence, title, or quotation.
28) The colon may be used before enumerations.
29) A comma is used to separate independent clauses joined by "but" or "only" if there is a change of subject.
30) The comma is used to set off certain introductory phrases.

d. Usage—Basic Standards

1) Grammatical usage must meet the informal standard of place and time.
2) The words chosen must express the meaning clearly.
3) The structure of sentences must be in accord with prevailing patterns.
4) Spelling must be in accord with the accepted usage of time.
5) Punctuation and the use of capital letters must follow the prevailing custom.
6) Paragraphs must be well constructed for the purpose and the material written down in conventional form.

e. Clarity

1) Practice moving up and down an abstraction ladder to acquire different degrees of specificity
2) Avoiding fallacious thinking
   a) Sweeping generalizations
   b) Two-valued attitude—right or wrong
   c) Stereotyped thinking
   d) Fact and opinion
   e) Opinions or judgment
   f) Drawing inferences
3) Using words correctly
   a) Avoid wordiness
   b) Use varied words
   c) Avoid triteness
   d) Make clear references

f. Letter writing

1) Attitudes to be acquired:
   a) Answering questions that have been asked
   b) Implying or expressing respect and esteem
   c) Expressing earned congratulations
   d) Expressing sympathy when needed
   e) Inquiring about matters of concern to the reader
   f) Expressing good wishes
   g) Keeping the letter tidy
   h) Enclosing a stamped envelope when requesting a reply from uninterested parties
   i) Never reading another's letter except upon request
   j) Selecting appropriate materials
   k) Mailing letters promptly
   l) Writing and typing the signature when the typewriter is used
   m) Placing the return address on the envelope
   n) Reading letters before mailing
   o) Making social letters as interesting as possible
   p) Being concerned about the quality of writing and the correctness of spelling
   q) Answering invitations
   r) Giving reasons when refusing invitations
   s) Not writing letters in anger
   t) Answering letters with relative promptness
2) Abilities which contribute to good letter writing:
   a) A realization that a letter is a means of communication
   b) A realization that a letter has different parts
   c) A sensitivity to the situations in which a letter should be written
   d) A knowledge of the purpose of each of the different parts of a letter
   e) The ability to capitalize, punctuate, and place correctly the heading, salutation, ending, and signature
   f) A knowledge of the relative position of each of the parts of a letter
   g) The knowledge of what should be included in each part of a letter
   h) The ability to space the various parts of a letter properly
   i) A knowledge of the appropriateness of different types of salutations, addresses, and endings in terms of the addressee and the type of letter being written
   j) The ability to spell correctly certain words of great importance in letter writing such as "Dear," "Mr.," "Mrs.," "Miss," and "Gentlemen"
   k) A knowledge of what is appropriate to say in a letter in terms of the circumstances of the writing
   l) A knowledge of the factors that make a friendly letter interesting
   m) A knowledge of worn expressions to be avoided in letter writing
   n) The ability to keep the content of a business letter appropriate and to arrange the necessary information correctly
   o) The ability to write and place the address correctly on the envelope
   p) A knowledge of the appropriateness of writing materials to the purpose and type of letter
   q) The ability to write and place the return address on the envelope, and an understanding of its importance

r) A knowledge of how to enclose money in a letter, and how to write dollars and cents
s) A knowledge of how to fold a letter
t) The ability to capitalize names of firms
u) The ability to write simple informal and formal invitations and acceptances
v) A knowledge of the location of the first word in a body of a letter
w) A knowledge of what types of invitations deserve formal answers
x) A knowledge of sources of information relative to correct procedure in regard to invitations
y) A knowledge of abbreviations to use in titles and addresses
z) Certain attitudes of fundamental importance in letter writing
   (1) Neatness
   (2) Handwriting conscience
   (3) Spelling conscience
   (4) Promptness in mailing letters
   (5) Answering letters

g. Filling in forms

1) Necessary attitudes
   a) Realizing the necessity of filling out blanks correctly and neatly
   b) Realizing the necessity of following directions fully and accurately
   c) Giving information in the form that is called for
   d) Striving to give all the information called for
   e) Using every effort to make the completed work look attractive
2) Situations
   a) Writing a money order
      (1) To a picture company for pictures to be used in booklets
      (2) To a cotton mill for cotton to be used in a display
      (3) For seeds for a school garden
      (4) To a manufacturing company for material to be used in social science
      (5) To a publishing company for a magazine subscribed to by the class
   b) Information blanks
      (1) Questionnaires regarding personal history of health
      (2) Enrollment cards
      (3) Library loan card
      (4) Call slip for books at the library
      (5) The heading of a standardized test
      (6) An application blank for membership in a magazine club
   c) Forms concerned with banking
      (1) A deposit slip for school savings account
      (2) An application card for a bank in the school savings organization
      (3) A withdrawal slip
   d) Mail order forms
      (1) A subscription blank
      (2) A coupon for samples or free booklets as advertized

h. Outlining—Principles to be developed

1) The outline should have an introductory and a concluding topic sentence.
2) Each major topic should be of comparable importance and directly related to the subject of the outline.
3) There must be at least two sub-topics under each major topic.
4) The same form for numbering, lettering, indenting, capitalizing, and punctuating should be used throughout the outline.
5) There should usually be no punctuation after the topics.

i. Self-editing—Attitudes

1) An awareness of the need for deciding what is to be said before even beginning to write
2) The realization of the fact that the "first draft" is mainly for the purpose of getting ideas into some concrete form
3) The consciousness of the fact that neatness in written expression is like neatness in appearance and that each of us is judged by one as well as by the other

j. Bibliographies—Techniques to be taught

1) To give completely and accurately all necessary information, as author's name, page numbers, and date of copyright
2) To use alphabetical order whenever suitable
3) To write first the author's surname, followed by a comma
4) To underline all titles of books or magazines
5) To develop habits of absolute accuracy on references and forms

k. Creative writing

1) Objectives
   a) To help pupils recognize the value of their own experience
   b) To amplify the range of pupils' experience
   c) To improve the quality of observation
   d) To aid pupils to fit words to the details of experience
   e) To help pupils discover suitable forms for the transfer of experience to others
   f) To develop individual personality by furnishing opportunities for the expression of feelings and ideas
   g) To provide a means for using leisure time profitably by making children more independent and self-reliant in the field of language expression, which in turn would enrich their lives
   h) To draw out and promote any natural ability that children may have in language expression
   i) To help children appreciate good literature through their own attempts at literary production, which usually leads to better understanding of the writings of others
   j) To establish rapport among children and teachers to encourage freedom of expression
   k) To develop writing skills and vocabulary to facilitate writing as a form of communication
   l) To make provision for those children who possess literary talent to secure encouragement and appropriate instruction
2) Research-based implications
   a) Children can be motivated to write creatively. The type of motivation should be within the child's experience and should stimulate freedom of expression.

b) A carefully planned program for development of creative writing skills is needed at all levels and all socioeconomic backgrounds.
c) It may be expected that younger children, in the primary years, can do a great amount of independent writing, if dictation and proper opportunities are provided.
d) Varied experiences should be provided and individual differences considered. Flexible grouping for specific purposes might prove to be a beneficial procedure in the creative writing program.
e) If the findings of some investigators are indicative, a higher quality of creative writing may be achieved when pupils write from derived experience rather than from direct experience. This finding, however, is inconclusive and conflicting with results from other studies.
f) The greater percentage of children's writings may be concerned with personal experience since children generally achieve the highest quality work in personal writing.
g) It seems that teachers should encourage children to write about their experiences instead of choosing topics for them. Children can be taught to observe, to understand, and to think creatively about that which they have experienced first hand.
h) Teachers often recognize that children are not always able to identify their interests or choose to write about them. They should capitalize upon the fact that written expression may be a good way to identify and to develop interests.
i) It appears that children do not write about their problems. If teachers are to defend the thesis that writing has therapeutic value, they need to find a way to encourage children to write about these problems. There is, however, some evidence that children work actively toward achievement of their developmental tasks when they write creatively.
j) Creativity seems to be related to the measure of intelligence and academic achievement and moderately related to social adjustment. Although a few educators insist that tests of creativity reveal that some of the most creative minds have unimpressive scores, there appears to be a positive relationship between creativity and the measures of intelligence and academic achievement. Teachers may therefore recognize creative writing as a means of challenging all pupils and in some instances identifying the gifted child.

3) Motivation techniques
   a) Word stimulus
   b) Title
   c) Sentences or phrases
   d) Paragraphs
   e) Stories
   f) Books
   g) Pictures
   h) Recorded materials
   i) Films
4) Motivation principles
   a) Providing attractive classrooms rich in materials
   b) Encouraging pupils to write from their own interests and needs
   c) Providing rich experiences about which a child can express himself
   d) Developing sensitivity to good writing which in turn helps a child improve his own writing
   e) Using real needs of children or helping them to develop new ones

f) Providing freedom from fear and helping pupils gain confidence in their ability to create
g) Providing abundant time and opportunity for writing in many areas and in many forms
h) Developing skill in mechanics without sacrificing spontaneity
i) Sharing the end products of writing
j) Evaluating the writing in terms of the total growth of the child

1. Poetry—Sequence in writing

1) Words and phrases
2) Free verse
3) Haiku
4) Couplets
5) Triplets
6) Quatrains
7) Acrostic poems
8) Cinquain
9) Tanka
10) Septolet
11) Quinzaine
12) Quintain

C. Oral and Written Language

1. Aims

a. The history and development of the English language

1) English is part of the Indo-European language family.
2) Changes in spelling and pronunciation influence contemporary spelling and pronunciation—changing nature of the language
3) Origins of English words—continuing growth of English
4) Comparison of American and British English
5) English is part of the world culture.

b. The structure of the English language

1) Specific sounds can be identified for the English language—corresponding graphemes can be identified.
2) English words can be grouped according to their function in sentences—some words may belong to more than one group.
3) Word order helps to signal meaning.
4) English sentences are based on distinct patterns.
5) Basic sentence patterns can be elaborated—through specific techniques.

c. Usage of American English

1) There are varied levels of acceptable usage or varied degrees of appropriateness of usage.
2) Usage concerns the selection of specific words to be used in any given speech situation.
3) Usage is not labeled "right" or "wrong" for the choice of usage is an individual operation. Usage may be judged on the basis of suitability to the context, whether it be a social context or a composition context.
4) Speech dialects differ according to region and social class. Even standard English allows for variety of acceptable speech.

5) Students should develop sensitivity to language habits.

d. Oral and written composition in English

1) The purpose of using language is to communicate ideas and feelings.
2) The success of composition is evaluated on the basis of success in communicating.
3) Skills associated with written composition, for example, spelling, punctuation, and handwriting, facilitate communication.
4) In order to communicate one must first have an idea or thoughts to communicate.
5) An extensive vocabulary facilitates communication.
6) Skill in effective communication is gained through practice in composing varied types of messages.
7) The study of other persons' attempts to communicate (literary models) can aid growth in ability to compose and to communicate.

2. Specific areas of instruction

a. Word study

1) Concepts to be taught
a) Words may name people, places, and things.
b) Words may tell the action taking place.
c) Words may describe people, places, and things.
d) Words may describe actions.
e) One word may have many meanings.
f) Different words may mean almost the same thing.
g) Words are often made of distinct parts.
h) Two words may be put together.
i) Some words are more colorful than others.
j) Some words have unusual characteristics - reversibility as in "level."
k) Many English words have been borrowed from other languages.
l) Words develop and change in meaning.
m) Words are often invented or coined to meet needs.
n) Some words and phrases become worn out.

2) Techniques
a) Structure
(1) Word Shapes—Print and write word in different ways
(2) Playful words—Al^{O}ft
(3) Word architecture—build from a root word using affixes
(4) Letter addition—begin with one letter
(5) Repeaters—as in "Mimi"
b) Sound
(1) Homonyms
(2) Heteronyms
(3) Write words beginning with a particular sound in a certain time period
(4) Write as many words as possible using a certain prefix
(5) Write as many words as possible beginning with "cat"
c) Meaning
(1) Word alchemy—to demonstrate relationships as in "Pebbles are rocks, To rock is to sway, To sway is to ..."

(2) Confusing words—as in "dessert" and "desert"
(3) Writing definitions
(4) Unfamiliar words
(a) Write definition
(b) Use in context
(c) Check dictionary
(5) Long words
(6) Jingo-lingo and daffynitions - as in "Spinal final = a big examination day for medical students"
(7) Context and definition
(8) Reworded proverbs—as in "The absence of prevarication proves to be an advantageous plan of action."

d) History
(1) Etymology
(a) Coined words
(b) Borrowed words
(c) Adapted words
(d) Names of inventors or persons
(e) Imitation of sounds
(f) Fusions of known words
(2) Portmanteau words
(3) Word inventions
(4) Acronyms
(5) People and places—Search for words based upon as in "marathon"
(6) Word cartoons—Illustrative posters of origin as in "gargantuan"

b. Sentence study

1) Patterns
a) N + V
b) N + V + N
c) N + LV + N
d) N + LV + Adj.
e) N + V + N + N
2) Creating original sentences
a) Transforms - negative, question, etc.
b) Modification
(1) Noun cluster
(2) Prepositional phrase
(3) Adverbial phrase
(4) Participial phrase
c) Compounding
(1) Subject
(2) Predicate
(3) Whole sentences
d) Apposition
e) Subordination

c. The library

1) Facts to be learned:
a) Books are arranged in a systematic fashion (either Dewey Decimal or Library of Congress classification) and that this classification system is an aid to the user of the library.
b) The card catalogue is an index of all books in the library arranged by name of author, title of the book, and subject of the book.
c) Books are shelved numerically from left to right, section by section.

d) Fiction is arranged alphabetically by the names of authors.
e) Other materials, such as filmstrips and records, picture files, atlases, etc., are in special areas.

2) Guides to using the library:
a) Check out and return books to the library.
b) Find directions for locating books by use of the card catalog.
c) Use dictionaries, encyclopedias, atlases, and similar reference sources.
d) Use special reference sources such as Reader's Guide.
e) Make use of bibliographies.
f) Take notes.

d. The card catalogue—Skills to be learned

1) An understanding of the purpose, contents, and value of the card catalogue
2) An understanding of the meaning of the letters on the drawers
3) Skill in finding a word in an alphabetical list
4) Skill in using guide cards
5) An understanding of the arrangement of cards in the drawers
6) An understanding of the meaning of each piece of printed matter on each of the following type of cards
a) Author card
b) Title card
c) Subject card
d) Author-analytic card
e) Title-analytic card
f) Subject-analytic card
7) An understanding of the meaning and use of "see" and "see also" on cross reference cards
8) An understanding of the use of Library of Congress cards

e. Reference sources

1) Atlas
2) Almanac
3) Encyclopedia
a) An understanding of the contents, purpose, and value of an encyclopedia
b) An understanding of the form in which the material in an encyclopedia is arranged
c) Skill in finding a word in an alphabetical list
d) An understanding of the location of the index in an encyclopedia
e) An understanding of the meaning of guide letters on covers of volumes
f) An understanding of the placement of topics made up of compound words
g) An understanding of the different types of encyclopedia
h) Skill in using pronunciation keys
i) Skill in locating on the page the particular information needed
j) Skill in using cross references
k) Skill in using guide words
l) An understanding of the purpose of bibliographies given at the close of articles
m) An understanding of the meaning of certain marks such as boldface type, parentheses, italics, etc.
n) An understanding of how to keep an encyclopedia up to date
o) The attitude of depending upon the encyclopedia as one of the more valid sources of printed information

f. Index—Skills and information to be taught

1) The difference between topics and sub-topics
2) What the different punctuation marks in the index mean
3) How maps, graphs, tables, or diagrams are shown in an index
4) The use and significance of the key or direction at the beginning or the end of the index
5) Different types of arrangement of sub-topics
6) How the pages of the most important discussions on the particular topic are shown
7) Whether or not pronunciation is indicated in an index
8) How to look under more than one topic if necessary to find the information wanted

g. Dictionary

1) Learning the names of letters, recognition of each
2) Learning alphabet, consecutive arrangement of letters
3) Learning location of letters in alphabet with relation to each other
4) Finding in any alphabetical arrangement words beginning with certain letters
5) Arranging words alphabetically
   a) Beginning with different letters
   b) Beginning with same letters
6) Appreciation of dictionary as a tool and interesting source of much information
7) Understanding that the dictionary is built on alphabetical order by first, second, third letters, etc.
8) Familiarity with relative position of letter sections—as, for example, d's come in the first third of the dictionary, y's in final third, etc.
9) Using guide words to locate material on a page
10) Understanding that words are listed by root forms
11) Using the dictionary to find the correct spelling of a word
12) Learning the use of diacritical markings and key words as aids in pronunciation
13) Learning the meaning and use of accent
14) Learning the meaning and the use of respelling to show pronunciation
15) Learning the meaning and the use of syllabication
16) Using the definition best suited to the context
17) Using the dictionary for correct use of homonyms
18) Using the dictionary as a key to various meanings of a common word
19) Understanding abbreviations in the dictionary
20) Using synonyms and antonyms to clarify meaning
21) Using the dictionary to get related forms, irregular plurals, irregular verb forms
22) Using cross references for additional information
23) Understanding significance of word derivation, prefixes, suffixes, etc.
24) Learning about special features of the dictionary—as in table of measure, atlas, etc.

h. Listening

1) Word perception
   a) Recall of word meanings
   b) Deduction of meanings of unknown words

2) Comprehension of ideas
   a) Noting details
   b) Following directions
   c) Organizing into main and subordinate ideas
   d) Selecting information pertinent to a specific topic
   e) Detecting clues that show the speaker's trend of thought
3) Using ideas to build understandings
   a) Evaluating an expressed point of view or fact in relation to previous learning
   b) Making justifiable inferences

i. Notetaking—Skills

1) List only the important facts.
2) Abbreviate long or difficult words.
3) Use a different page or piece of paper for each question.
4) Write plainly so that the notes may be read by the writer.
5) Be sure there is enough information for discussion.

j. Creativity—Stimulating

1) Rewarding diverse contributions by encouraging questions and new ideas
2) Accepting the creative child for what he is, a child with all the usual problems of childhood plus an active, thinking brain
3) Reducing the overemphasis on sex roles. Boys can enjoy poetry, art, music; girls can enjoy science and things mechanical.
4) Helping the creative child adjust to the group situation, reducing his isolation, and helping him participate
5) Helping the child solve personal problems—Helping parents understand the creative child and the significance of creativity
6) Recognizing the talents of the creative child by making obvious the value of the contributions of each child by praising sincerely
7) Using a variety of stimuli in forms of methods and materials and developing an atmosphere conducive to creativity
8) Assuming the role of a guide, not a chastiser-corrector, by avoiding rigid thinking and evaluating
9) Developing a positive attitude toward failure
10) Encouraging experimentation and divergent thinking

II. PRIMARY LEVEL PROGRAM

A. General Objectives

1. Kindergarten

a. Oral language

1) Linguistic fluency
   a) Games
   b) Discussion
   c) Dramatization
2) Auditory discrimination of sounds
3) Experiential backgrounds

b. Linguistics

1) Discrimination
   a) Visual
   b) Auditory
2) Knowing what language we speak

c. Composition

1) Language experience
2) Story telling
3) Dictation
4) Group composition
5) Poetry—Dictated

2. First Grade

a. Oral Language

1) Linguistic fluency—Many opportunities to speak
2) Choric speaking
3) Vocabulary development
4) Listening experiences

b. Linguistics

1) Correspondence of sound and letter
   a) Single consonants
   b) Long and short vowels
2) Discovering regular spelling
3) Knowing who else speaks English
4) Deciding if all English sounds alike

c. Composition

1) Language experiments
2) Dictated stories
   a) Group
   b) Individual
3) Experience stories
4) Sentence patterns
   a) N + V
   b) Expansion
5) Poetry
   a) Free verse
   b) Couplet
6) Skills
   a) Punctuation
   b) Capitalization

3. Second Grade

a. Oral Language

1) Linguistic fluency
   a) Pantomime
   b) Creative dramatics
2) Vocabulary
   a) Word play
   b) Homonyms
   c) Synonyms
   d) Discovery of words
3) Listening experiences

b. Linguistics

1) Correspondence of phoneme and grapheme
   a) Blends
   b) Digraphs
2) Word analysis
   a) Roots
   b) Selected affixes
3) Discovery of graphemic families
4) History of American English

c. Composition

1) Language experiments
2) Group composition
3) Individual experimentation
4) Sentence patterns
   a) N—V—N
   b) Expansion techniques
5) Identification—N and V classes
6) Poetry
   a) Cinquain
   b) Free verse
   c) Triplets
7) Figurative language - simile
8) Skills
   a) Punctuation
   b) Capitalization

4. Third Grade

a. Oral language

1) Linguistic fluency
   a) Dramatization
   b) Ensemble speaking
2) Vocabulary development
   a) Synonyms
   b) Use of the dictionary
   c) Word play
3) Listening experiences

b. Linguistics

1) Correspondence of phoneme and grapheme
   a) Irregular sounds—c, g, q, x
   b) Rules—c, qu
2) Word analysis
   a) Affixes
   b) Roots
3) Discovery of graphemic families
4) History of American English
5) Loan words

c. Composition

1) Language experiments
2) Individual composition
3) Sentence patterns
   a) N + LV + N
   b) N + LV + Adj.
   c) Expansion techniques

4) Poetry
   a) Haiku
   b) Limerick
   c) Free verse
5) Figurative language
   a) Simile
   b) Metaphor
6) Skills
   a) Punctuation
   b) Capitalization

B. Specific Oral Language

1. Voice control

   a. Volume and voice control adequacy for various communicative activities

   b. The ability to pitch one's voice appropriately for different situations

   c. A clear voice tone

   d. A speaking tempo which facilitates the reception of ideas by one's listeners

2. Audience sensitivity

   a. Speaker must be conscious of his audience

   b. Speaker must be sensitive to the needs, interests, and desires of audience

3. Telephoning to learn

   a. The courtesies of "please," "thank you," taking turns, and listening

   b. Self-confidence and spontaneity of expression

   c. Creativeness in oral expression

4. Listening as a member of an audience

   a. Give quiet, courteous, and alert attention to the speaker

   b. Respond as appropriate with facial expression to show interest

   c. Make other appropriate responses, including laughter and applause

   d. Ask pertinent questions in order to amplify or classify the speaker's comments

   e. Observe common courtesies in asking questions

C. Specific Written Language

1. Experience charts

   a. Help children discover what the real processes of writing are

1) The alternative ways in which the same ideas can be expressed
2) The ways a language choice is resolved
3) How improvements can be made in written expression

b. Help children see the necessity of thinking through a project to decide

1) What to write about
2) How it is to be organized and structured
3) How a particular idea might be phrased
4) What format and style are appropriate

2. Spelling—Abilities expected at end of primary years

a. Use an effective plan for studying spelling words with the teacher's guidance

b. Make greater use of word analysis techniques to improve spelling

c. Develop the habit of checking written work for spelling errors and correcting them

d. Keep a list of words which seem difficult

e. Begin to use glossaries, encyclopedias, and simplified dictionaries

f. Be able to arrange words in alphabetical order through the first and second letters

g. Open the dictionary at the estimated location of the desired word

h. Use guide words in a dictionary

i. Divide words into syllables

j. Select the meaning that best fits a word as it is used in a sentence

k. Recognize the diacritical markings of long and short vowels

l. Recognize and build compound words and derive the meanings of such words from their component parts

m. Use and spell the contractions I'll, I'm, it's, haven't, won't, and can't

n. Spell certain irregular plurals and certain words doubling the last consonant

3. Manuscript form—Guidelines

a. Kindergarten—No written work, but the teacher should call the attention of the children to material which involves form. For example, attention could be called to the attractiveness of neat work, to margins in books and newspapers, to titles of stories, and to attractive arrangements of work on paper

b. First Grade

1) Margin at left and right
2) Spacing at top and bottom of page
3) First word of a paragraph indented

4) Second line of paragraph brought back to margin
5) Writing all work to be handed in carefully, on one side of the paper

c. Second Grade

1) Spacing between title and body of a composition
2) Indenting the number as well as the first word if the paragraph is numbered
3) Placing the name and date correctly on paper

d. Third Grade

1) Correct form used in writing several sentences in one paragraph
2) Leaving last line of a ruled sheet blank
3) Avoiding crowding at end of a line

4. Punctuation

a. First Grade

1) Period at the end of a sentence which tells something
2) Period after numbers in any kind of list

b. Second Grade

1) Question mark at the close of a question
2) Comma after salutation of a friendly note or letter
3) Comma between the day of the month and the year
4) Comma after closing of a friendly note or letter
5) Comma between name of city and state

c. Third Grade

1) Period after abbreviations
2) Period after an initial
3) Use of an apostrophe in common contractions
4) Commas in a list

5. Capitalization

a. First Grade

1) The first word of a sentence
2) The child's first and last names
3) The name of the teacher, school, town, street
4) The word "I"

b. Second Grade

1) The date
2) First and important words of titles of books
3) Proper names used in children's writings
4) Titles of compositions
5) Names of titles—"Mr.," "Mrs.," "Miss"

c. Third Grade

1) Proper names—month, day, common holidays
2) First word in a line of verse

3) First and important words in titles of books, stories, poems
4) First word of salutation of informal note, as "Yours"

6. Outlining—Objectives

a. To learn that an outline is an aid in clear and orderly thinking

b. To be able to outline important material under proper headings and to discard minor details

c. To be able to arrange ideas in proper sequence

d. To be able to determine the main topic of paragraphs in a selection of more than one paragraph

e. To realize the significance of sub-topics for an outline of material read

f. To be able to number and punctuate a series of main topics

g. To learn to capitalize the first and important words of main topics

h. To be able to use the capital Roman I, II, etc., for main heads

i. To know that the period is omitted after a title or after main headings, and that a period should be used after a Roman number

7. Announcements, notices, labels, titles, signs

a. To discover that announcements and notices posted on the bulletin board often contain valuable information and should be read

b. To acquire skill in writing a clearly understandable statement of a school event, including the essentials of time, purpose, and place

c. To know where and how to get permission to post a notice at school

d. To know the proper location of various kinds of notices

e. To know the form of capitalization and punctuation that should be used

f. To study attractive arrangement and correct spacing

g. To learn that some kinds of labels, signs, and notices should be designed to catch the eye

h. To learn that appropriateness, accuracy, and brevity are the three major tests of good notices and announcements

8. Reports

a. To begin to express observations in written form either by pictures or story

b. To learn to make accurate observations and reports

c. To develop the ability to note essentials clearly and in order

d. To learn the importance of the use of definite, descriptive language

e. To see the value of concrete experiences as a means of learning

f. To learn habits of persistence in tasks of long duration

III. INTERMEDIATE LEVEL PROGRAM

A. General Objectives

1. Fourth Grade

a. Oral language

1) Speaking
   a) Individually
   b) Dramatization
   c) Ensemble
2) Vocabulary development
3) Listening experiences

b. Linguistics

1) Review
   a) All phonemes
   b) Common graphemes
   c) Initial grapheme combinations
2) Dictation practice
3) Compare British and American spelling and word usage
4) Use of dictionary - etymology

c. Composition

1) Language experiments
2) Sentence patterns
   a) N + V
   b) N + V + N
   c) N + LV + Adj.
   d) N + LV + N
   e) Expansion
      (1) Modification
      (2) Compounding
3) Identification
   a) Noun
   b) Verb
   c) Adjective
   d) Adverb
   e) Determiner
   f) Preposition
4) Vocabulary development
   a) Word play
   b) Thesaurus
5) Composition
   a) Paragraphs
   b) Letters
6) Poetry
   a) Cinquain
   b) Free verse
   c) Quatrain
7) Skills - quotations

2. Fifth Grade

a. Oral language

1) Speaking
   a) Individually
   b) Dramatization
   c) Ensemble
2) Vocabulary development
3) Listening experiences

b. Linguistics

1) Extend knowledge of graphemes that are less common
2) Latin and Greek affixes and roots
3) Loan words
4) Levels of usage
5) Use of dictionary—etymology
6) History of English—Indo-European origins

c. Composition

1) Language experiments
2) Sentence patterns
   a) N + V
   b) N + V + N
   c) N + LV + Adj.
   d) N + LV + Adv.
   e) N + V + N + N
   f) Expansion
      (1) Modification
      (2) Compounding
      (3) Subordination
3) Identification—11 word classes
4) Vocabulary development
   a) Dictionaries
   b) Word play
5) Composition
   a) Sentence
   b) Paragraph
   c) Research
6) Poetry
   a) Imagery
   b) Varied forms
7) Skills - abbreviations

3. Sixth Grade

a. Oral language

1) Speaking
   a) Individually
   b) Panel - argumentation
   c) Ensemble
   d) Interpretation
2) Listening
   a) Notetaking
   b) Critical
   c) Variation in usage

b. Linguistics

1) Irregular graphemes
2) Dictionary
   a) Etymology
   b) Loan words
   c) Acronyms
   d) Invention
3) English abroad
4) Changing nature of language
5) Introduction to dialectology

c. Composition

1) Language experiments
2) Sentence pattern practice and expansion
3) Vocabulary development
   a) Discovery
   b) Thesaurus
   c) Word play
4) Composition
   a) Stories
   b) Paragraphs
   c) Articles and research
   d) Poetry—all forms
5) Skills
   a) Juncture
   b) Punctuation

B. Specific Oral Language–Telephoning To Teach

1. Further courtesies of conversation

2. The informational or research skills of alphabetizing and getting specific help through the use of the Yellow Pages of the telephone directory

3. Calm reaction in emergencies, such as calling the police, the fire department, or a hospital

4. The speech skills of articulation, pronunciation, pleasing voice, and correct word usage

C. Specific Written Language

1. Goals for the student

a. Sensitive to occasions for writing

b. Desire to write when there is need

c. Inclination to write for pleasure

d. Tendency to put more and more of oneself into what he writes

e. Ability to get one's ideas on paper so that the reader will understand

f. Power to revise what one has written so that it will serve his purpose

g. Recognition and appreciation of good writing

h. Desire to improve and belief that one can

2. Outlining

   a. To learn to write outlines correctly with main topics and first and second sub-topics

   b. To see the values of outlining for comprehension and organization of thinking

   c. To form the habit of making an outline when it is needed in connection with speeches and reports

3. Composition

   a. Conditions favoring a good program

      1) A friendly, informal classroom atmosphere in keeping with the children's growing ability to manage freedom
      2) An enriched curriculum with emerging opportunities for children to speak and write
      3) Time for the teacher to plan with children and for children to write, discuss, revise, and rewrite
      4) Opportunities for children to share the results of their efforts with their classmates and with others

   b. Topics

      1) Personal experiences
      2) Editorials and news stories
      3) Reviews of books and radio and television programs
      4) Directions and simple explanations

   c. Areas of emphasis and expected advancement

      1) Unity
      2) Continuity
      3) Form
      4) Sentence structure
      5) Diction
      6) Tone

4. Punctuation

   a. Fourth Grade

      1) Apostrophe to show possession
      2) Hyphen separating parts of a word divided at end of a line
      3) Period following a command
      4) Exclamation point at the end of a word or group of words that makes an exclamation
      5) Comma setting off an appositive
      6) Colon after the salutation of a business letter
      7) Quotation marks before and after a direct quotation
      8) Comma between explanatory words and a quotation
      9) Period after outline Roman number

   b. Fifth Grade

      1) Colon in writing time
      2) Comma to indicate changed word order

3) Quotation marks around the title of a booklet, pamphlet, the chapter of a book, and the title of a poem or story
4) Underlining the title of a book

c. Sixth Grade

1) Comma to set off nouns in direct address
2) Hyphen in compound numbers
3) Colon to set off a list
4) Comma in sentences to aid in making meaning clear

5. Capitalization

a. The first line of poetry

b. The headings of an outline

c. Names of parts of the world and sections of the country

d. Proper nouns—famous persons with titles

e. The name of the Deity and the Bible

f. The main words of book titles

g. Names of organizations to which children belong

h. "Mother" and "Father" when used in place of the name

i. Commercial trade names

j. First word of a quoted sentence

k. Proper adjectives showing race, nationality, etc.

l. Abbreviations of proper nouns and titles

6. Manuscript form

a. Placing of all work on paper with attention to beauty as well as correctness

b. Use of correct paper for particular writing occasions

7. Reports—Objectives

a. To prepare summaries of increasing length

b. To learn the importance of planning in advance the steps in an activity

c. To learn the correct form for keeping minutes of a meeting

d. To train accurate observation and reporting, using as much descriptive language as possible

e. To learn to use a few key words which will recall data afterwards

f. To learn to organize for a particular purpose

g. To be able to use related materials to stimulate interest and achievement

h. To develop the habit of noting the source of material and giving credit for its use

i. To learn to select only appropriate material and to transfer it accurately

8. Announcements, notices, labels, titles, signs—to be able to make a clear statement of all essentials in the wording of notices, announcements, and advertisements

9. Situations calling for writing

a. Situations requiring direct communications through writing

1) Social notes of thanks, sympathy, invitation, etc.
2) Business letters, orders for materials, preparations for a trip, or requests for information
3) Friendly letters to pen pals or foreign friends
4) Gift tags and greeting cards

b. Situations needing a record

1) The making of plans
2) Class activities, events, sports, excursions, or science discoveries
3) Minutes for clubs
4) Class histories, diaries, or logs

c. Situations requiring filling out forms

1) Registration slips, examination blanks, application to extra-curricular classes, checks, and receipts
2) Telegrams and cables

d. Situations requiring written work materials

1) Reports by individuals or groups
2) Panel discussions
3) Directions and recipes
4) Lists of materials
5) Dictation or copying of information or directions
6) Bibliographies

e. Situations needing publicity

1) Advertisements, notices, or announcements
2) Articles for school or local newspaper
3) Headlines for newspaper articles
4) Legends for bulletin boards and exhibits
5) Room duties to be posted

f. Situations stimulating the writing of

1) Original arithmetic problems
2) Riddles, puzzles, jokes
3) Word pictures of people and places

4) Editorials, news stories
5) Stunts, skits, plays
6) Songs, dramatizations, original choral readings
7) Poems, stories, myths, fables

COMMENTS

In the elementary school oral language program, the objectives given to teachers such as "absence of glaring errors in oral language usage" are by far too general. The whole area of reasonable usage is unspecified in specific terms and what is generally intended as "usage" is that of feminine "polite-society." The urban child and the urban teacher are completely ignored in these texts. Also, the prospective elementary teacher would be hard pressed to translate these objectives into specific classroom materials and instructional procedures, especially for oral and written language learning.

There is no model for learning or teaching listening skills, speaking, or writing skills. As a result there is no approach to teaching vocabulary development, spelling, or sequential writing skills and use of rhetorical skills. The focus in language arts texts is on correctness rather than developmental language learning of the child.

A most serious omission from these instructional texts for teachers is a treatment of the teaching of reading as a language function, when, in fact, the two ways of receiving language to be encoded is through sight and sound. The two modes of producing language to be decoded are through speech and writing. The latter is covered quite thoroughly; the former is neglected. Clearly the emphasis in English language learning is on production and form rather than reception and thought.

The most glaring need for teachers in elementary language arts is a model of language learning, oral and written, which will permit them to build objectives and instructional techniques relevant to elementary children's language development and needs. The elementary level language model should be mutually exclusive yet complementary to secondary students' language needs and development. The model should account for both oral and written language learning and the different linguistic abilities and dialects which urban, rural, and suburban children bring to school with them.

Needed also is a method of diagnostically evaluating children's linguistic, oral and written ability. Teachers also need help in translating objectives into materials and practices in the classroom.

CONCEPTS FOR ELEMENTARY PUPILS

To examine the contributions which have been suggested for a successful elementary language arts program an inventory of textbooks was made. These texts were: Ginn Elementary English (Reid, 1967), Macmillan English Series (Pollock, 1967), Language for Daily Use (Dawson, 1968), and Elementary School English (Kirby, 1968). The following inventory of texts for elementary students reflects both the scope and sequence of concepts, skills, and attitudes presently advocated for current elementary language arts curriculum. This examination focuses, mainly, on the needs which students will encounter in speaking and writing; although impossible, some mention of listening and reading will be included. The concepts are listed by topics and by the grade level at which they are presented. In compilation several procedures operated:

1) Topics were placed in the grade level of most consensus among the texts.

2) Topics covered in earlier grades were not repeated unless they were to be learned in either greater breadth or depth.

3) Concepts were listed under one topic heading for matters of classification though they might also fall under the domain of others.

Hence, the topics listed represent a greater number than presented in any one text.

Textbook Series One has the most extensive coverage of materials in all areas with the exception of language history and development. The chapters include a review at the end of each. Very few rules and guidelines are set apart within the text of the chapters. A handbook at the end of each book summarizes the rules and concepts presented. Most

concepts are presented by comparative examples from which a student may judge which form is most effective. The discussions of writing of stories and compositions are more elaborate than the other text series used. Series One emphasizes rhetorical methods such as how to present an effective argument, or how to introduce conversation, rather than mechanical methods, such as punctuation. The section on discussions is much more extensive than in any other series and includes various forms of formal discussion as well as basic rules of parliamentary procedure. Punctuation sections by Sixth Grade cover most rules that a student would be using throughout high school. Grammar sections use the terminology and methods of transformational grammar but do not place as much emphasis on the sound structure of the language as the other three series.

Textbook Series Two has the most obviously structured chapters. Each begins with a one-page section called a "Language Laboratory" which includes history and sound structure of the language, as well as aspects of language development. Rules and concepts considered important are printed in blue ink throughout the chapters. Each chapter ends with a section titled, "Writers' Workshop" which suggests topics for short writing assignments in connection with what has been discussed in the chapter. Another section "Use the Right Word" has exercises for various usage problems. Finally, each chapter includes a section of self tests over the material just presented. The end of each text includes a "Glossary of Linguistic Terms" and a "Summary" of the concepts and rules presented. The writing sections place more early emphasis on reports than on stories. Throughout, the rules related to composition tend to be specific on mechanical details (margins, spelling, etc.) and more vague on the rhetorical aspects of composition.

Textbook Series Three contains much more interesting reading material, stories, and information, than the other series. Language development is discussed in short sections titled "How our Language Grew" which tend to focus on derivation of single words or word types. The exercises include much writing, but the instruction in grammar and composition is limited and restricted primarily to mechanics. Little differentiation is made between stories and reports other than discussing them in separate sections. No section or topic is developed as extensively as in the first or second series. The editors of this series have included several sections per text entitled "To Memorize" which present short maxims or didacticisms by Benjamin Franklin and others.

The most noticeable characteristic of Textbook Series Four is the very extensive repetition within chapters and from one year to the next. Chapters include both a review and a summary of the concepts and rules presented. Rules and suggestions are set apart in boxes within the chapters. Each text includes a "Subject Index," a "Skills Index' and a "Glossary" of terms. The chapters are almost completely composed of exercises with very little extensive explanation and no interesting reading material. Poetry is not included as a separate section or, as an incidental one, in some of the chapters. Stories and other creative compositions have a very limited discussion as parts of other chapters. Nor is there much emphasis on oral activities.

LIST OF CONCEPTS

GRADE I

Composition

I. Sentence
   - A. Commands are a type of sentence that tells you to do something.
   - B. Parts of sentences can tell:
     1. Where
     2. When
     3. Who did something

II. Letter Writing
   - A. The parts of a letter are heading, greeting, message, and closing.
   - B. The teacher should explain commas and capital letters, but no rules are given.

Poetry

I. Enjoying and understanding a poem
   - A. Read the poem to the children.
   - B. Help them "feel" the quietness (or some other mood) the poem creates.
   - C. Identify the title of the poem.
   - D. Try acting out or memorizing a short poem.

Oral

I. Storytelling from pictures

- A. Tell what happened before.
- B. Tell what is happening now.
- C. Tell what might happen next.
- D. Arrange the events in the right order.

II. Courtesy

- A. An exercise matches pictures with short responses such as "Please," "thank you," "I'm sorry."

Word Types

I. Verbs

- A. These words tell what someone or something can do.
- B. Sometimes we add endings like -s, -ed, or -ing to verbs so that they sound right in a sentence.

II. Adjectives are words that describe things.

III. Some words end in -ly.

IV. Pronouns may be substituted for other words in a sentence.

V. Nouns

- A. Add an -s if there is more than one.
- B. No explanation of possessive is given, but there is an exercise in adding and removing -'s.

Punctuation

I. Capital Letters

- A. Begin sentences with capital letters.
- B. Begin the names of the months with capital letters.

II. Periods

- A. Put periods after initials.

III. Contractions

- A. No explanation is given, but an exercise using contractions is included.

Usage

I. Is—are, was—were

- A. Use <u>is</u> when talking about one person or thing.
- B. Use <u>was</u> when talking about one person or thing.
- C. Use <u>are</u> when talking about more than one person or thing.
- D. Use <u>were</u> when talking about more than one person or thing.

II. Gone

- A. Use <u>have</u> or <u>has</u> with <u>gone</u>.

III. Seen

- A. Use <u>have</u> or <u>has</u> with <u>seen</u>.

IV. Given

- A. Use <u>have</u> or <u>has</u> with <u>given</u>.

V. Color Words

- A. Identify and write color of objects.

VI. Classifying

- A. Identify the word that does not belong in the group.
- B. Give the group a larger classification.
- C. Sort a list into four classes.

VII. Compound Words

- A. Compound words are made by putting two words together.

VIII. Opposites

- A. Some words are made by putting two words together.

IX. Synonyms

- A. Some words mean about the same thing as other words.

X. Homonyms

- A. Homonyms sound alike but mean different things.
- B. They usually have different spellings.

Miscellaneous

I. Alphabetical Order

- A. Identify which letter is missing.
- B. Identify which letter came before and after a given letter.
- C. Identify both small and capital letters. Give both their order and their names.

D. Alphabetical order is a means of classification.

II. Thinking

A. Solving riddles
1. Short poem riddles give clues to the question "What am I?"

B. Completing analogies
1. One-sentence analogies are presented for the students to complete. Ex: The sun is hot but snow is _____.

C. Making inferences
1. Students read two sentences, then pick one of two others to go with the first two sentences.

D. Drawing logical conclusions
1. Read the first two sentences, then choose the sentence or part of a sentence (of two) which tells what happened next.

E. Putting events in logical order
1. Arrange a group of three or four sentences into an order that tells a story.

GRADE II

Composition

I. Sentences

A. Sentences can tell about things or ask about things.
B. Do not connect sentences in writing or speaking with the word and.
C. Choose the most interesting word to use in the sentence.

II. Letter Writing

A. The teacher should point out:
1. The margins around the letter
2. The place of the greeting
3. The capital letters and comma in the greeting
4. The way the first sentence is indented
5. The way one sentence follows another in the body
6. The way the left margin is made
7. The place of the closing and signature
8. The capital letters in the closing and signature

B. Thank you letters thank someone for something they have given to you or done for you.
C. Letters can request something.
D. Invitations must include what, when, and where.
1. A general invitation does not need a greeting or closing

E. A letter can ask if you may do something.

III. Reports

A. The title is written at the top.
B. There is a space between the title and the first sentence.
C. The report is written in sentences.
D. Each sentence begins with a capital letter and ends with a period.
E. The things in the report are told in the right order.

IV. Writing Stories

A. Tell a better story by joining some of the short sentences.
B. A sentence that tells more is a better beginning for a story.

Poetry

I. Poems express a thought or a feeling.

II. A poem may be a picture put into words.

III. A poem is a kind of singing.

IV. Motion in poetry gives the poem beauty.

V. The words in a poem can make you hear and see things.

VI. Poems do not have to be about something that really happened.

VII. Rhyme

A. Some words end with the same sound. They are said to rhyme.
B. Poems often use words that rhyme.

Oral

I. Reports

A. Stand tall.

B. Look at the boys and girls.
C. Know what you are going to talk about.
D. Tell just a few things.
E. Talk so that everyone can hear.
F. Talk in a happy voice.
G. A report tells about something you have seen or done.
H. A report has several sentences.
I. Each sentence tells about something important or interesting.
J. A report tells things in the order that they happen.

II. Making Introductions

A. Use the names and proper titles of the people.
B. Always make people feel as if they are wanted.
C. See that new friends are introduced to people they do not know.
D. Say the name clearly. Tell something about the person you are introducing.
E. When you meet a person, listen carefully to the name. Answer by saying, "Hello" or "How do you do?" and say the person's name.
F. When you introduce a young person to an older person say the older person's name first.

III. Pronouncing Words Correctly

A. Say all words clearly.
B. When you say "let me" or "give me," say the words clearly.
C. Pronounce the "ing" at the end of words correctly.

IV. Storytelling

A. Tell stories carefully to make fun for otners.
B. Do not talk too long.
C. Stand up straight when you talk.
D. When telling a story, the surprise comes at the end.
E. Always tell stories in the right order. Think first.
F. Choose the right word to tell exactly what you see.
G. Use words to make others see and hear things.
H. Use words to make others taste things.
I. People can have different thought pictures about the same objects. You get thought pictures from:
   1. Things you read
   2. Things others tell you
   3. Things you see
   4. Things you make up
J. Words can show you the thought pictures of your friends.
K. Let your voice help you when you tell a story. Sound happy, sad, etc.
L. A story may include:
   1. Who is in the story
   2. What happens
   3. When it happens
   4. Where it happens
   5. Why it happens
M. Stop at the end of each sentence.
N. Tell the name of your story.
O. Show a book or some pictures if you can.

V. Using a Telephone

A. Give the operator the telephone number you are calling.
B. Say "Hello" when the person answers.
C. Tell your name.
D. Tell why you are calling.
E. Be polite.
F. Ask, "May I take a message?"
G. Speak clearly.
H. Listen carefully.
I. Try to remember the message.
J. Write the name of the caller and his telephone number.

VI. Dramatization

A. Show how the person in the story feels.
B. Talk like a real person.
C. Act like a real person.
D. Talk so that everyone can hear.

VII. Listening

A. Listen carefully to every question.
B. Listen carefully to directions.
C. Always listen to the end of a sentence.
D. Look at the one who is talking.
E. Listen to different sounds and think what they tell.
F. Listen to what others tell about and remember what they say.
G. Listen to a poem that tells a story for enjoyment.
H. Listen for words that rhyme.

VIII. Choral Reading

A. Poems can be read aloud together and in parts.

IX. Giving Directions

A. Give the name of the street and house number.
B. Give known landmarks.
C. Use the directions right or left to tell how to turn.
D. Tell exactly how something looks.
E. Give directions in the right order.

X. Discussions

A. Talk one at a time.

XI. When you speak of another person and yourself, name the other person first.

Punctuation

I. Apostrophe

A. Use an apostrophe in a contraction to show where letters were left out when the two words were combined.
B. Use an apostrophe and an -s to show possession.

II. Capital Letters

Use capital letters to begin:
A. Names of people
B. Names of streets
C. Names of schools
D. Names of pets
E. The word "I" at the beginning or in the middle of a sentence
F. The first word and the main words in the title of stories and books
G. Names of holidays
H. Days of the week
I. Titles such as Mr., Miss, Mrs.
J. Names of cities and states
K. The greeting and closing of a letter
L. Initials

III. Periods

A. Sentences that tell something end with a period.
B. Periods are used after Mr. and Mrs.
C. Periods are used after abbreviations.

IV. Question Mark

A. A question mark is used after sentences that ask something.

V. Commas

Use a comma:
A. After the greeting of a friendly letter
B. After the closing of a friendly letter
C. After the day in a date
D. Between the name of a town and a state when you write them next to each other

Usage

I. An is used before words that begin with vowel sounds.

II. Did—Done

A. Use done with a helper such as have, has, or had.

III. Has no—Hasn't any

A. The word no is used with has.
B. The word any is used with hasn't.

IV. Doesn't—Don't

A. Use doesn't when we tell about one thing.
B. Use don't when we tell about more than one thing or with the word you.

V. No—and Not—Words

A. The no-words are words like nobody and nothing.
B. The not-words are words like don't and hasn't.
C. Only one no-word or not-word is needed in a sentence.

VI. -ed

A. We often put the ending -ed on a word like jump or walk when we tell about something that has already happened.

VII. Took—Taken

A. The word took never needs a helper.
B. The word taken always needs a helper.

VIII. Run—Ran

A. The word ran never needs a helper.
B. The word run sometimes needs a helper.

IX. Ate—Eaten

A. Ate never needs a helper.
B. Eaten needs a helper such as has, have, had, is, are, was, or were.

X. Broke—Broken

A. Broke never needs a helper.
B. Broken always needs a helper.

Miscellaneous

I. Language

A. Most of the words we use today are words from old England.
B. Some sounds we make are singing sounds: m, n, ng.
C. Many words in our language are borrowed from different languages.
D. New words were invented for new inventions and discoveries.
E. A vowel sound is in every word. The letters for the vowel sounds are: a, e, i, o, u.
F. Whispered sounds are made with your breath. They are c, p, wh, t, k.
G. Some words sound like the things they are: coo, buzz, bang, hiss.
H. Words that ask are: when, where, what, which, why, who.
I. Groups of sounds that are harder to say are called blends: pr, gl, bl, fl, tr, sm, sk, sp, sn, pl.

II. Observation

A. Look carefully and you will see many things.
B. Look carefully every day and you will see many things to talk about.

GRADE III

Composition

I. Sentences

A. Each sentence you write needs two parts.
1. The subject always contains the noun and tells what you are talking about.
2. The predicate always contains the verb and tells what the person, thing, or idea is or does. It may also answer the question, "Did what?"
B. Sentences may be made longer by adding words that tell how, when or where.
C. More interesting sentences use words that help the reader see a picture.
D. When you speak or read aloud your voice tells the listener whether the sentence is used to make a statement or to ask a question.
E. Improving run-on sentences
1. Begin the whole sentence with a word like because, after, when, or while.
2. Leave out the and; put a comma there instead.
F. Types of sentences
1. A sentence that tells something is a statement.
2. A sentence that asks something is a question.
3. A sentence that tells someone to do something is a command.
4. A sentence that shows strong feeling is an exclamatory sentence.
G. A kernel sentence is a basic sentence, one that has a first part (subject) and a second part (predicate).
H. The symbols used for a kernel sentence are : Sentence $\longrightarrow$ S + P
I. Stringy sentences are short sentences tied together with and, and so, but, or because.
J. Some sentences have a noun after the verb as well as in the first part of the sentence.
K. Words that add meaning to a sentence are descriptive words.
L. Sentence Pattern 1: NV (Noun—Verb)
M. Transformations
1. Transformations change kernel sentences.
2. A transformation may change a statement to a question.
3. A transformation may change a statement to a command.
4. The sign "$\longrightarrow$" means "is transformed to."

II. Paragraphs

A. A paragraph must have a main idea. Sometimes we call the main idea the topic of the paragraph.
B. Each sentence in a paragraph must tell about the main idea or topic.
C. The first word of a paragraph must be indented.

D. Descriptive words help you see pictures in a paragraph.
E. When you write more than one idea, use more than one paragraph.
F. A topic sentence tells what the whole paragraph is about.
G. Tell what happened in the right order.
H. Begin your sentences in different ways.

III. Diaries

A. A diary is a book in which you write experiences day by day.
1. Record ideas.
2. Record things you see.
3. Record things that you do.

IV. Writing a Notice

A. Have a good title.
B. Use capital letters correctly in the title.
C. Keep good margins.
D. Indent the first line of the paragraph.
E. Keep the notice as short as you can.
F. Tell everything clearly.
G. Sign your name if necessary.

V. Outlines

A. An outline is a list of topics.
B. Use one topic for each paragraph.

VI. Book Reports

A. Give the title of the book and the name of the author.
B. Tell a little about the best, or funniest, or most exciting part.
C. Tell just enough so that your listeners or readers will want to read the book.
D. Write good sentences.

VII. Fables

A. A fable is a story generally in which animals talk and act as people do.
B. A fable teaches an important truth.
C. Some of the most famous fables were written by a man named Aesop who lived thousands of years ago.

VIII. Legends

A. Legends are very old stories made up to explain things in nature which the people could not explain.

IX. Stories

A. Choose an idea that is interesting to you and which will catch the reader's attention.
B. Choose a title that fits the story.
C. Write an interesting beginning sentence that makes the reader want to read on.
D. Make sure that the sentences that follow tell something about the first sentence.
E. Write about the happenings in the right order.
F. Tell as many important things as you can:
1. What happened
2. Where it happened
3. When it happened
4. How or why it happened
G. Give names to the characters.
H. Have the characters use conversation.
I. Write an ending that answers questions a reader might have.
J. Indent the first word in each paragraph.
K. Have all the sentences in each paragraph tell about one thing or idea.
L. Use handwriting that can be easily read.
M. Leave a margin at each side of your paper.
N. Proofread your story.
O. Have a classmate proofread your story. Use his good ideas to improve your stories.
P. The plot of a story is the plan of a story. It does not tell details.
Q. Pictures can give good ideas for stories.
R. You can write stories about imaginary things.
S. You can write stories about things that have happened to you.
T. Some stories make you laugh.
U. Some stories end with a surprise.
V. Connect all of the other events to the main event.
W. Good stories may be about:
1. Someone who is in danger

2. Someone who is trying to do something very difficult
3. Someone who is trying to do something that is both dangerous and difficult
4. Something that is funny
5. Something with a surprise ending

X. Take out sentences that interfere with the progress of the story.

Y. Write sentences that add more interest.

Z. Decide what important events you will tell about.

X. Reports

A. Choose an interesting topic.

B. Choose a title that fits the report.
1. Choose one that will interest everyone.
2. Choose one that will limit the report to one topic.
3. Use exact words to make the meaning of the title clear to everyone.

C. Choose an interesting beginning sentence.

D. Make each sentence keep to the topic.

E. Answer as many of these question words as you can: Who? What? When? Where? Why? How?

F. Tell things that are true about the topic.

G. Use your best handwriting.

H. Show a picture or an object if it will make your report more interesting.

I. Ask a classmate to listen to your report and to make suggestions for improving it.

J. A report tells about something. It may be written or spoken.

K. A report should be about one thing.

L. Make sure the sentences are in the right order.

M. Before you write a report:
1. Find out more about your subject.
2. Make sure your facts are correct.

N. Choose a topic that is small enough to work with.

O. Things to check in revising a report:
1. Capital letters
2. Periods
3. Spelling
4. Margins
5. Handwriting

XI. Letter Writing

A. Purposes of letters:
1. To give an invitation
2. To give information
3. To share news
4. To thank someone

B. Envelopes
1. Address the envelope properly punctuated and include the Zip Code.
2. The return address is the name and address of the sender and is placed in the upper left-hand corner.
3. A stamp is placed in the upper right-hand corner.

C. Parts of a Letter
1. Heading
a. The first line tells the house number and street of the person writing the letter.
b. The second line tells the writer's city or town and state.
c. The third line tells the date of the letter.
2. The greeting begins with a capital letter and is followed by a comma.
3. The body of a letter tells the message.
4. The closing begins with a capital letter and is followed by a comma.
5. The signature tells who wrote the letter.

D. Friendly Letters
1. Write about pleasant and interesting things.
a. Tell what you have done at school or at home.
b. Tell about books you have read or motion pictures you have seen.
c. Tell something funny.
2. Ask your friend questions to show that you want to know something about him.

E. Invitations should tell who, what, when, where.

F. Thank you Letters
1. Thank you letters thank someone who has done something nice for you.
2. When you thank someone for a gift, tell why you like the gift. Say something about its color, its size, or the fun you will have with it.

3. When you thank someone who has helped you, tell how the person helped you.
4. Use exact words to give a clear meaning.

Poetry

I. Poems can be about color, the weather, feelings, things that happen, anything.

II. Some poems are nonsense or just for fun.

III. Poems use description and action words and comparisons.

IV. Words that rhyme end with the same sound.

- A. They may begin with different letters but end with the same sound.
- B. Some words that look very different sound alike.
- C. Some words that look alike do not sound alike.

V. Rhyming words make poems fun to say and fun to hear.

VI. Some words sound like things or animals.

VII. Limericks

- A. A limerick is a nonsense poem.
- B. It has five lines.
- C. The first two lines and the last line rhyme. Lines 3 and 4 rhyme.

Oral

I. Making introductions

- A. When you introduce a man and a woman, say the name of the woman first.
- B. When you introduce a boy and a girl, say the name of the girl first.
- C. Say the older lady's name first when you introduce two ladies to each other.
- D. Say either name first when you introduce two girls to each other or two boys to each other.
- E. When you introduce someone to your mother, say your mother's name first.

II. Making an Announcement

- A. It must give all the information a person needs.
- B. Tell who will take part, what is going to happen, when and where it will take place, other important information.

III. Storytelling

- A. Have a good story to tell.
- B. Do not begin too many sentences with I.
- C. Do not run different ideas together with the words and, and-uh, or, and so.
- D. Describe an object.
  1. Tell its color, shape, and size.
  2. Tell how it feels when you touch it.
  3. Tell how it is like other objects or different from them.
- E. Choose a title that lifts the story and catches the reader's attention.
- F. Use an interesting beginning sentence.
- G. Give names to the characters.
- H. Have the characters use conversations.
- I. Look at the class.
- J. Speak so the listeners can easily hear.
- K. Be interested in what you are telling.

IV. Conversation

- A. Conversation is another word for friendly talk.
- B. Conversations have one or more topics.
- C. A greeting is what you say when you meet someone.
- D. Help others take part by asking them questions. Do not talk all of the time.
- E. Talk about pleasant things and about things others are interested in.
- F. Ask questions to keep the conversation moving.
- G. Say "Excuse me" if you interrupt.
- H. Interrupt only if it is absolutely necessary.
- I. Listen to others.
- J. Speak in a kind and friendly voice. Do not hurry.
- K. Keep your voice pleasant but make it heard.

L. Stress helps give meaning to what you say.
M. When someone joins the group, give him a chance to be in the conversation.

V. Discussions

A. Discuss means to talk together to decide something.
B. Help everyone take part.
C. Give your ideas. Listen to the ideas of others.
D. Ask questions when you do not understand something.
E. Talk only about the topic being discussed. Do not repeat ideas.

VI. Reading Aloud

A. Read it to your self first. Be sure you can say all the words correctly.
B. Use your voice to tell what each sentence means.
C. Read conversation as the person who is talking would speak. Show how he feels.

VII. Acting

A. Try to think and feel like the character.
B. Try to talk and act like the character.
C. Speak loudly enough for others to hear.
D. Listen to and act with other characters.

VIII. Choral Speaking

A. A chorus is a group of people who sing or speak together.
B. Saying poems together is called choral speaking.
C. Change the tone of your voice to bring out the meaning of the poem.
D. Choral speaking is often done in parts.
E. A solo part is a part that someone speaks or sings alone.
F. Poems are a special kind of music. They should be heard.

IX. Giving a Book Talk

A. Choose a favorite book.
B. Remember to give the title and the author.
C. Decide what are the most interesting things in the book to tell about.
D. Do not tell all the story or how the book ends.
E. Show the book if you can.
F. Show them some interesting picture.
G. Read a short part from the book if there is enough time.
H. Tell why you liked the book.

X. Listening

A. Reasons for listening:
1. To hear what is being said
2. To think about the speaker's ideas
3. To tell whether the ideas are good ones
4. To hear whether an idea is complete or whether there is something to add to it
5. To decide whether another idea might be better
6. To be sure not to miss all the reasons, examples and statements being made
7. To be able to continue discussing the idea
B. Be a polite listener. Do not whisper or look around. Do not play with anything on your desk.
C. Be ready to tell the speaker what he did well.
D. Be ready to ask a question if there is something you do not understand.

Word Types

I. Verbs

A. Verbs tell what people, animals or things do. They tell about action.
B. Some sentences may have two verbs.
C. Verbs that cannot add -d or -ed change in form.
D. Some forms of verbs require helping words.
E. Verbs are words in the second part of a sentence.
F. Verbs change form to give an idea of time.
G. Verbs fit into the following blanks:
1. Mary _____ pretty.
2. _____ the window.
H. A verb is not used as the first word in a sentence that is a statement.

II. Nouns

A. Naming words are called nouns.
B. Singular and plural
1. Nouns that mean one are called singular. Singular means single, only one.

2. Nouns that mean more than one are called plural, more than one.
3. Add -s or -es to most singular naming words to make them mean more than one. A few words do not follow this rule. Some even change their form.
4. Most words that end in -s, -ss, -x, -ch, and -sh add -es to make them mean more than one.

C. If the noun has two parts, like Amy Grant, the two parts together make one noun.
D. A mass noun is one generally used in its singular form: sugar, flour, music.
E. Mass nouns usually cannot be counted, but they may follow such words as any, much, some.
F. Most nouns can be counted and will fit the blanks in these test sentences:
   1. Four _____ were on the _____.
   2. There were _____ in the _____.

III. Adjectives

A. Some words such as noisy, old, angry may be added to the first part of sentences to add meaning.
B. Adjectives are sometimes called descriptive words.
C. We add -er and -est to many adjectives.
D. Adjectives are in these positions in a sentence: The very _____ horse is _____.

IV. Determiners

A. Some words such as the, a, some, every, and my are used in front of nouns in the first part of a sentence.

V. Adverbs

A. Words such as slowly, happily may be used in a sentence to add meaning.
B. They may be moved to different places in the sentence.
C. Some groups of words work the same as slowly or happily.
D. Words that tell when, where, how, and why add meaning to sentences.

VI. Negatives

A. Negatives are words that mean no.

Punctuation

I. Capital Letters

A. Begin each word in the name of a river or special place with a capital letter.
B. Begin each word in the name of a special group of people with a capital letter.
C. Begin each line in most poems with a capital letter.
D. Begin names of countries with capital letters.
E. Begin names of lessons with capital letters.

II. Commas

A. Use a comma to separate the exact words of a speaker from the rest of the sentence.
B. Put a comma after a last name when you write it before the first name.
C. Put a comma between words used in a series.

III. Exclamation Mark

A. Use at the end of a statement that shows strong feeling, surprise, or pleasure.
B. Use after some words that show strong feeling.

IV. Quotation Marks

A. Use around the exact words of a speaker.
B. Begin a new paragraph each time the speaker changes.

V. Underline all words in the title of a book.

Usage

I. Root Words

A. The root of a word is the main part of the word.
B. New words are made by adding endings.
C. Some endings are -s, -es, -d, -ed, -ing, -ly, -y.
   1. -er and -est can usually be added to the same word.
   2. -ness and -ly can be added to words, but the words fit into different places in a sentence.
   3. re- before a word means to do it again.

4. un- before a word makes a word mean the opposite.
5. -er after a word means one who does something.

II. The same word-form can have different meanings in different sentences.

III. Sense words tell about something you see, hear, touch, taste, or smell.

IV. Many words are made from other words.

V. And

A. A sentence which is made up of two ideas which do not belong together is a run-on sentence.
B. And should not be used to connect two complete sentences.

VI. Comparisons

A. When you are comparing two things you are either telling how they are the same or how they are different.
B. Use like to make a comparison.
C. Use as twice to compare two things that are alike in one or more ways.
D. Use than to show how two things are different.

VII. I, me, we, us

A. When you speak of others and yourself, always name yourself last.
B. Sometimes when you speak of yourself you will need to use me.
C. We and us are used the same way as I and me.

VIII. Any - No

A. Use any after not or a contraction that ends in -n't.
B. Never say isn't no or aren't no. Say is no or are no.

IX. Come - Came

A. Came does not need a helping word.
B. You may use a helping word with come.

X. Climbed may be used with or without helping words.

XI. To, too, two

A. Too means also or too much.
B. Two is a number.

XII. Brought may be used with or without a helping word.

XIII. Them - Those

A. Use those in front of a word that is a person or thing.
B. Use those when you point something out.
C. Do not use them with the name of something.

Miscellaneous

I. Alphabetizing

A. Put in order according to the first letter.
B. When more than one word begins with the same letter, put the words in alphabetical order by using the second letter of each word.
C. We learn the alphabet in a certain order. We call this alphabetical order. It is always the same.

II. Proofreading

A. Write neatly.
B. Use the correct heading.
C. Keep the margins straight.
D. Start every sentence with a capital letter.
E. End every sentence with the right punctuation mark.
F. Spell every word correctly.
G. Recopy the paper if you need to.
H. Proofreading symbols:
1. ^ means something is to be inserted.
2. lc // means lower case.
3. ⌒ means omit.
4. ¶ means a new paragraph.

III. Dictionary

A. Use a dictionary to find how words are spelled.
B. Dictionaries give meanings of words.
C. Entry words are in bold face letters and are in alphabetical order.
D. Guide words are at the top of the page. They tell the first and last word on the page.

IV. Books

A. How a book is made:
1. The author writes the book.

2. The editor who works for the publisher makes any needed changes.
3. The designer decides kind of paper, size, how many pages, how much art.
4. Artists make the pictures.
5. Type is placed on the printing press.
6. Sample pages are proofread.
7. The book is printed and bound.

B. Parts of a book:
1. Cover
2. Title page is at the front of the book and tells the name of the author, name of the book, when the book was written.
3. Table of contents tells what information is in the book and where it may be found.
4. Chapters
5. Index is at the back of the book and lists in alphabetical order with page numbers what is in the book.

C. In listing books and authors, put the last name of the author first. Separate them with a comma.

D. Many people have a favorite author who has written several books that they liked.

E. An illustrator helps make a book interesting with pictures.

V. Language

A. A morpheme is a meaningful unit of language which cannot be divided into smaller meaningful units.
1. A morpheme can have one or more syllables.
2. It can be a word or a part of a word.

B. Morphology is the study of the structure of words, especially of the changes of form which affect meaning or function.

C. Phoneme is the smallest unit of sound that makes one word different from another. Slash marks /t/ are used to enclose phonemes.

D. Oral language came first.
1. There are no written languages without speech.
2. Some spoken languages have no written forms.

E. The study of spoken language is called linguistics.

F. Words do not mean the same to all people.

G. Stress is the loudness or softness with which we say words.

H. The dictionary shows the stressed part of a word with the symbol (') (dash'ing).

I. Only people can use language. Animals can not.

J. People use language to get things done.

K. Language can be used just for fun.

L. Language is a system and words are part of that system.

M. A language is not the same in all places.
1. Englishmen may use different words for some things.
2. Englishmen may pronounce words differently.

N. Language changes as time passes.
1. Words are not used.
2. New words are added.
3. Pronunciation changes.
4. Meanings change.

O. Each part you hear when you say a word such as justice is called a syllable.

P. Got and nice are two overworked words.

Q. Signs and pictures can express meaning as well as language.

R. Language is a rather arbitrary assignment of meanings to sounds.

S. When we speak, we use words in an order that expresses meaning.

T. A different word order can give a sentence a different meaning.

VI. Spoken Language

A. To make a speech sound we use our tongue, teeth, lips, nose, the roof of our mouth, our vocal cords, and our lungs.

B. English uses more than 40 speech sounds.

C. We use letters to stand for the sounds of words.
1. Not all letters in some words have a sound.
2. When we write the sound a letter stands for, use /t/. This means the sound, not the name of the letter.
3. Sometimes different letters can stand for the same sound. Ex: city and sit start with /s/.
4. Sometimes we write two letters together to stand for one sound.

D. Vowel sounds
1. The vowel sounds are /i/, /e/, /a/, /o/, /u/.

2. Others are /ō/, /ā/, /ī/, /ū/, /ē/.
3. A final e on a word is usually not pronounced. It tells us how to say the vowel sound.

GRADE IV

Composition

I. Sentences
   A. Four kinds of sentences
      1. Declarative sentences state something.
      2. Interrogative sentences ask a question.
      3. Imperative sentences give a command.
         a. Usually no subject appears in this type.
         b. The subject is understood to be "you."
      4. Exclamatory sentences show surprise, anger, or excitement.
   B. Basic sentence patterns:
      1. NV pattern - Birds / fly.
      2. NLVAdj pattern - Mary / is pretty.
   C. And and but may be used to join sentences.
   D. After, when and before may be used to join sentences. These words give the new sentence a slightly different meaning.
   E. Because may join sentences. It tells you that something made something else happen. Be careful of the order of the two short sentences joined with because.
   F. Using an adverb first in a sentence often helps the writer keep from beginning all his sentences in the same way.
   G. One kind of transformation puts the subject of a sentence at the end of the sentence without changing the meaning. Ex: Bob likes Bill. Bill is liked by Bob.
   H. Sentence patterns are the arrangements of words normally used in language.
   I. Kernel sentences are the most basic arrangements.
   J. A sentence is a group of words that makes sense by itself.
   K. Pattern 1 has one noun and one verb.
      1. The noun may be more than one word such as Mr. Jones.
      2. The verb may be more than one word. The helping verbs are marked V^h.
      3. NV^hV^hV is still a Pattern 1 sentence.
   L. We signal the end of one spoken sentence and the beginning of the next by the way we raise and lower our voices. We also pause briefly between the last word of one sentence and the first word of the next.
   M. Word groups that make English sentences must be in a certain order.
   N. Basic sentences
      1. They are positive statements.
         a. A positive statement tells what someone or something is or does.
         b. A negative statement tells what someone or something isn't or doesn't.
      2. They are made by following rules for putting certain words in a certain order.
      3. They are used for making new sentences.
   O. Transforms are the kinds of sentences made from basic sentences by following transform rules.
   P. Sentence $\longrightarrow$ NP + VP
      1. NP $\longrightarrow$ det + N
      2. VP $\longrightarrow$ tense + verb
      3. VP $\longrightarrow$ + Be + adj

II. Paragraphs
   A. You can build a paragraph by telling your opinion and giving facts to support it.
   B. Always use specific, rather than general, words if you want to make your meaning clear.

III. Outline
   A. An outline is a brief list of the main ideas in the order in which they are to be written or told.
   B. Use Roman numerals for the main ideas.
   C. Use capital letters for listing facts or subtopics under the main idea.
   D. The topics and subtopics may all be written as complete sentences or all as phrases.

IV. Stories
   A. By using your imagination, everyday

incidents can be changed into an interesting story.

B. The main things that happen in a story, when taken all together are called the plot of a story.

C. The lesson which a story such as one of Aesop's Fables teaches is called a moral.

D. The way a story begins often makes a reader want to finish it. If a very good story has a dull beginning, you may stop reading before you find out how good it is.
   1. Does the beginning give the feeling of the story—scary, funny?
   2. Does it get the story started right away?
   3. Does it tell enough, but not too much, to make the reader interested?
   4. Does it have words that will make the reader interested?

E. Writing conversation often helps make a story more interesting to read.
   1. In sentences containing conversation, the words which are not the exact words of a speaker are sometimes called the tag. The tag tells who is speaking and often how the speaker feels and speaks.
   2. Conversations often use contractions in stories since people use so many when they talk and the conversation you are writing must sound real.

F. A good story lets you share the adventures of others.

G. Some stories teach important lessons.

H. Keep in mind the purpose of your story.

I. List the steps in the story and follow them as you write.

J. Use lively verbs and adjectives that describe clearly.

V. Note Taking

A. The notes must:
   1. Be correct
   2. Be important
   3. Be brief
   4. Be in your own words wherever possible

B. Notes help you remember facts and organize ideas.

C. Write the title of the book, the author's name and the number of the page or pages you used.

VI. Reports

A. Reports usually include facts and not opinions.

B. Reports can be both oral and written.

C. Collect information by seeing, by asking questions, by listening and by reading.

D. Maps, diagrams, and pictures can make a report more interesting.

E. Descriptive words make a report more interesting and create a picture.

F. Both facts and opinions are important in helping others know what you think. But opinions cannot be used as facts to convince people about certain ideas.

G. When topics are listed in an order of time we say they are in chronological order.

H. Information organized to show that one main topic is considered more important than another is organized according to an order of importance.

I. Reports can be given in forms or combinations of forms, such as the following:
   1. Interviews
   2. Demonstrations
   3. Dramatizations
   4. Using charts or maps
   5. Using pictures
   6. Writing paragraphs

J. Guide for writing a report
   1. Find the information you need.
   2. Take notes.
   3. Divide your report into the several main parts of your subject.
   4. Outline the report. List the things to include in the right order.
   5. Write one paragraph about each topic.
   6. Use good handwriting.
   7. Proofread the report.

VII. Book Reports

A. Include the author and title of the book.

B. Tell what kind of a book it is.

C. Tell where and when the story takes place.

D. Tell what the book is about, but do not tell the whole story.

E. Include interesting information about the main characters.
F. Tell what you enjoyed most about the book.
G. Clearly explain your opinion of the book.
H. Tell where it can be found.

VIII. Letter Writing

A. Bread and butter letters are a kind of letter to say thank you to someone at whose house you have stayed.
B. Business letters
1. Reasons for:
a. To send an order
b. To make a request
c. To ask for information
d. To ask for a catalogue
2. Keep the letter short. Tell just enough to make the letter clear.
3. Be courteous and friendly.
C. Business letters include an inside address above the greeting which is the address of the person to receive the letter.
D. The greeting is followed by a colon in a business letter.

Poetry

I. No one can really say exactly what a poem is.

II. Some poetry has a definite beat or rhyme.

III. Poems can help you see, hear, and feel things.

IV. Listening to poetry

A. Listen for special words that help you see, hear, and feel things.
B. Try to "see" the pictures the words suggest.
C. Listen to the rhythm of the poem. Try to feel it.
D. Think about the meaning of the poem. What is the poet trying to say?

V. Stanza is a sentence or group of sentences that tell about one thing. There is a space between stanzas.

VI. Haiku

A. This form of poetry was developed in Japan.
B. Only three lines long, it is just long enough to catch and hold a memory.
C. This kind of poem often refers to nature or to one of the seasons.
D. Form
1. The first line has five syllables and tells the subject or place of the poem.
2. The middle line has seven syllables; the last, five.
3. The last two lines capture a feeling, thought, or action which grows out of the idea in the first line.

Oral

I. Discussion

A. In telling what you think, be sure to say why you think as you do.
B. If someone says something that you agree with, be ready to help his idea along by adding some reason why you agree with it.
C. If someone says something you do not agree with:
1. Listen carefully until he is finished.
2. Try to understand what he thinks and why he thinks as he does.
3. When you are called on tell why you disagree.
4. If you have a different idea, tell what it is.
5. Tell why you think your idea is a good one.
D. Have an important topic. Limit it to one idea.
E. Be willing to change your idea if you think someone else has a better one.

II. Storytelling

A. Make sure you have a good story to tell.
B. If possible, write out your story first.
C. Memorize one or two parts of your story.
D. Try to make your classmates interested in your main character.

E. Keep in mind the purpose of your story as you tell it.
F. A storyteller can help his audience hear what is happening by adding appropriate sound effects to his story.
G. A storyteller can use his hands and his body to help his audience see what is happening to his characters.
H. The exact words of the speaker are not necessary, but you should remember the important ideas and tell the happenings in an order that makes sense.
I. If you have trouble remembering the order in which things happen, write a few notes on a small piece of paper or card and use it as you tell the story.
J. When you change your voice to make it very soft or squeaky, you make it harder for your audience to understand you. Pronounce your words clearly and speak a little slower at times like that.

III. Introductions

A. Mention the group first when you introduce someone to a group.

IV. Book Discussion

A. Give your ideas about the books being discussed. Tell why you like or do not like a book, a character or an exciting part of a story.
B. Help your classmates to take part. Ask them questions. Be polite.

Word Types

I. Verbs

A. The -s form is used when the subject is singular.
B. The simple form (without the -s ending) is used when the subject is plural and with the words I and you.
C. The -ing form of the verb needs a helping verb, an auxiliary verb.
D. Auxiliary verbs show the time - present, past, or future.
E. Three ways to show past action:
1. Use the past tense of the verb.
2. Use the past participle form of the verb. This form needs an auxiliary verb.
3. Use the -ing form of the verb plus an auxiliary verb. The auxiliary verb shows the time change.
F. The different forms of be are very useful. They are: (will) be, (has) been, (are) being, am; is, are; was, were.
G. A verb which links the adjective that completes the predicate to the main word in the subject is called a linking verb, marked LV.

II. Nouns

A. Characteristics of nouns
1. A noun can be made plural. Many nouns add -s or -es to form the plural.
2. A noun often has a determiner, such as a, an, or the, before it. Adjectives may appear between the determiner and the noun.
3. Words which can work as nouns will make sense in the following test frames:
a. (The) _____ seemed good.
b. I like _____.
4. Nouns may be written to show possession by adding -'s or an apostrophe.
B. Proper nouns
1. It is the name of a specific person, place or thing.
2. It begins with a capital letter.
3. Most proper nouns do not have determiners used before them.
4. In most cases, proper nouns are not written in the plural form.
C. A common noun does not refer to a specific person, place or thing.
D. A count noun has both singular and plural forms. It follows a determiner such as a, an, one, two, or many.
E. A noun, N, is one kind of word used in an NP.

III. Pronouns

A. A pronoun is a word which may replace a noun previously referred to. It replaces a noun and its modifiers.

IV. Adjectives

A. An adjective is a descriptive word which tells something about the

person, place or thing which is named by the noun.

B. A group of words may work as a single adjective.

C. Usually adjectives appear before nouns or after linking verbs.

D. A predicate adjective is used in the predicate or completes the linking verb.

E. An adjective fits right after the word very in the following test. It seems very _____.

V. Adverbs

A. An adverb is a word which often tells how (manner), when (time), or where (place) something is done.

B. Many adverbs end in -ly.

VI. Conjunction

A conjunction is a word which shows a connection between sets of words, phrases, or sentences.

VII. Determiner

A. A determiner is a word which appears before a noun and signals that a noun is coming.

B. One or more adjectives may appear between the determiner and the noun.

C. Other words often fill the position of determiner and can be used as determiners.

D. A determiner, det, goes with a noun to make an NP.

E. When the determiner is nothing we write its name like this: ∅

VIII. Preposition

A. A preposition is the first word of any prepositional phrase.

B. The last word of the phrase is either a noun or a pronoun.

C. A determiner and adjectives may appear between the preposition and its object.

D. If a pronoun is used as the object, the object form of the pronoun is used.

E. Prepositional phrases which tell more about a noun are used as adjectives.

F. Prepositional phrases which tell more about a verb are used as adverbs.

Punctuation

I. Capital letters

A. Use a capital letter to begin the first word of a quotation.

II. Comma

A. Use a comma to separate the name of a person directly spoken to from the rest of the sentence.

B. Separate words like yes, no, and oh from the rest of the sentence with a comma.

C. Use a comma between the two parts of a compound sentence.

III. Quotation marks

A. Put other marks of punctuation inside the quotation marks when writing conversation.

B. When the direct quotation is a statement and comes at the beginning of a sentence, use a comma after the direct quotation.

C. When the tag comes at the beginning of the sentence, use a comma before the direct quotation.

IV. Colon

A. Use a colon after the greeting in a business letter.

B. Use a colon to separate hours from minutes in showing time.

C. When writing dialogue, put a colon after the name of each speaker.

V. Hyphen

A. A hyphen is used to divide words between syllables at the end of a line of writing.

B. A hyphen is used to join compound numbers such as twenty-five.

VI. Dash

A. A dash between numbers indicates that all numbers between the two are included. Ex: 7-14.

VII. Semicolon

A. Sometimes in poetry a semicolon is used instead of a period.

B. Pause a little longer for a semicolon than for a comma.

Usage

I. And

A. And can be used to join two ideas that are of equal importance.
B. And can be used to join two complete sentences. Use a comma before the and.

II. But

A. As it brings the two sentences together, the word but contrasts the two happenings.
B. When you join two complete sentences, use a comma before the but.

III. To, Too, Two

A. To
1. To is a preposition and may introduce a prepositional phrase which tells more about a noun.
2. It may introduce a prepositional phrase that tells more about a verb.
3. To also helps you to use certain verb forms correctly, as in the sentence, "I am going to run as fast as I can."

B. Too
1. Too often means also.
2. Too may be used to mean more than enough.

C. Two means a certain number or amount.

IV. A simile is a comparison which uses like or as.

V. Many words can work as either nouns or verbs.

A. Nouns often have determiners and/or adjectives before them.
B. Many nouns can be made singular or plural.
C. Verbs can have certain endings such as -s, -d, -ed, or -ing.
D. Only verbs can have auxiliary verbs or helping verbs.

VI. Affix

A. A word part added to a word to change its meaning is an affix.
B. A prefix comes before the word.
C. Suffixes come after the word.

VII. Many words are members of word families. Direct, indirect, direction, and director are all in the same word family.

VIII. Do not use the words he, she, it, we, and they when you do not need them.

IX. Do not use the words here and there with the words this, that, these, and those.

X. Sit—Set

A. When you sit, you rest in one place.
B. The word set means to place or arrange something.

XI. Good—Well

A. The word good describes nouns, people, places, or things.
B. Well describes verbs. It tells how something is done.

XII. Learn—Teach

A. When you learn, you help your mind.
B. When you teach, you help someone else's mind.

XIII. Let—Leave

A. The word let means to permit or allow.
B. The word leave means to go away from.

XIV. Began—Begun

A. Began never uses a helping verb.
B. Begun always uses a helping verb.

XV. Blew, Blown; Drew, Drawn; Flew, Flown

A. Blew, drew and flew never use helping verbs.
B. Blown, drawn and flown always use helping verbs.

XVI. I—Me

A. When it is right to use I alone, it is right to say "you and I" or "Bob and I."
B. When it is right to use me alone, it is right to say "you and me" or "Bob and me."

Miscellaneous

I. Language

A. Juncture is the pause between words or sentences. Juncture helps make spoken language understandable.
B. Pitch is the highness or lowness of voice tone. Changes in pitch often mark statements and questions.
C. Every English word has at least one vowel sound.
D. Meaning can be expressed by gesture, an object, or sound other than speech or speech sounds.
E. Vowels are a, e, i, o, u.
1. Y is a vowel when it spells a vowel sound as in dry.
2. W is a vowel when it is used with another vowel to spell a vowel sound, as in crow.
F. Letters that are not vowels are called consonants.
G. Not all sound is language.
H. About 650,000 words make up the English language.
I. The sounds and patterns of language make it possible to think and talk about things.
J. How we make sounds
1. Breath is necessary to make sounds.
2. The lips come together for three English phonemes: /b/, /p/, /m/
3. Stops are phonemes for which the breath stops and then pops out: /b/, /p/, /d/, /t/, /k/, /g/
4. Nasal sounds are made as the breath comes through the nostrils: /m/, /n/, /ng/
5. The teeth and lips touch for /f/, and /v/.
6. The tongue hits the upper teeth for /th/ and /th/.
7. The tongue hits the gums for /t/, /d/, /n/.
8. You can hum or change pitch with /m/, and /v/ but not with /f/.
9. You can hum /z/ but not /s/.
10. You can hum the following sounds: /th/, /zh/, /b/, /d/, /g/
11. You can not hum the following sounds: /th/, /sh/, /p/, /t/, /k/
12. The tongue, lips, and lower jaw make vowels different from each other.

II. Encyclopedia

A. A good encyclopedia has up-to-date and correct information, alphabetically arranged, about well-known people, and about animals, places, events, things, and ideas.
B. Entries about people are listed under their last names.
C. Specific information is often listed under more general topics.
D. Not every encyclopedia has the same topics and subtopics.

III. Pseudonym

A. A pseudonym is a false name sometimes used by writers. It is also called a "pen name."

IV. Using Libraries

A. The card catalog lists every book in the library in alphabetical order.
1. Books have one card listed by the title.
2. Another card is listed under the name of the author.
3. A third card is listed by the subject of the book.
B. Books that are not true stories are called fiction and are arranged according to the name of the author.
C. Books on history, geography, science, etc., are called nonfiction and are arranged in sections according to their subject.
D. A call number is the special number given to each book.
E. Special sources of information
1. Encyclopedias have information on many subjects.
2. An almanac is a one-volume book of facts printed every year.
3. An atlas is a book of maps.

GRADE V

Composition

I. Sentences

A. Basic sentence patterns
1. NV (John ran.)

2. NLVAdj (John was short.)
3. NVN (John read the paper.)
   a. The noun or pronoun used in the position after the verb may be called the direct object.
   b. Often the direct object tells what "receives the action" of the verb.
4. NLVN (Mary is queen.)

B. Types of Sentences
1. A simple sentence contains a subject and a predicate.
2. A compound sentence combines two or more simple sentences by joining them with words like and, but and or.
3. A complex sentence is made up of a simple sentence joined to another group of words which has a subject and a predicate but is of less importance and is not a sentence by itself. The less important idea begins with a word such as if, when, or because.

C. Most English sentences have a noun followed by a verb.

D. Words are often added to basic sentences to give more information. These sentences were modified.

E. A complete sentence is a group of words containing a subject and a predicate. A sentence seems complete to a listener or a reader.

F. A sentence fragment generally lacks either a subject or a predicate.

G. Sentences can be described by rules. The basic sentence rule is: Sentence > NP + VP
1. NP > det + N
2. NP > Ø + N
3. NP > det + Proper Noun
4. NP > Personal Pronoun
5. VP > tense + V_1

H. An NP that comes immediately after the verb in the VP functions as object. VP > tense + V_T + NP

I. An NP that comes after Be in the VP functions as complement. VP > tense + Be + NP

J. Be in the VP may be followed by an NP, an adverb or an adj.
1. Sentence > NP + tense + Be + NP
2. Sentence > NP + tense + Be + Adj
3. Sentence > NP + tense + Be + Adv

K. The simple subject is the main word in the subject of a sentence.

L. The simple predicate is the verb in the predicate.

M. Another version of basic sentence patterns:
1. NV
2. NVN
3. $NV^{be}N$

II. Phrases

A. A phrase is a group of words which does not contain a subject and a predicate working together.

B. A prepositional phrase contains a preposition and a noun or pronoun which is its object.

C. A verb phrase contains a main verb and any auxiliaries working with it.

D. A noun phrase is a noun with its determiner and any adjectives working with it.

III. Paragraphs

A. Start a composition with a topic sentence or a paragraph broad enough to include the whole subject of the composition.

B. Write a separate paragraph to sum up your subject.

C. Paragraphs may be organized in time order (chronological order). This kind of order is often used for paragraphs of narration (paragraphs in stories) and sometimes for paragraphs of explanation.

D. Items may be told in space order, such as left to right, top to bottom, near to far, or most important to least important. This kind of organization is used in paragraphs of description.

E. An idea may be developed by giving reasons or examples. This kind of organization is used in paragraphs which tell ideas or opinions.

IV. News Stories

A. A news story has only the most important facts about an event.
1. The writer must tell facts in a few words.

2. The reporter must put the most important facts first in case his story does not fit into the paper and the end of the story is cut.
3. He cannot use space for many descriptive words.
4. He cannot give his personal opinions.

B. The first paragraph of his story usually tells who, what, when, where.

V. Tall Tales

A. A folk hero is an imaginary person who has been given great strength or unusual power.
B. Tall tales are not the truth. They exaggerate. They tell about fantastic things that could never really happen.
C. Tall tales and animal myths are interesting because they tell of legendary heroes or give unusual explanations in a funny manner.

VI. Stories

A. Stories begin small and thin and must grow big with thinking. The framework for a story is called a plot. It usually contains:
   1. A central character—a person, an animal, or a thing, called the hero, who is trying to do something.
   2. An obstacle—a person or thing that stands in the way of the central character.
   3. A struggle—what the character does to get what he wants.
   4. A climax—the high point of action when the hero succeeds or fails.
B. A human flaw may contribute to the plot.
C. Events in stories have causes. An outline will help show reasons for the events in the stories.
D. Settings
   1. Needed and relevant details must be included in the story.
   2. Since the audience did not see the event or the story, the writer must help him to visualize.
   3. Specific language and description based on the senses help.
   4. Bits of action may be included in the descriptions.
E. In conversation, the characters can tell facts the reader needs to know. At the same time, the action is going on.
F. Use of dialect can make a story more interesting. Words are purposely spelled phonetically to help you hear and read how the dialect sounded.
G. A good story must include:
   1. At least one interesting character
   2. A good beginning that makes you want to read or hear more
   3. An interesting situation
   4. A climax or high point
   5. A satisfactory conclusion
   6. Careful, precise use of language
H. Developing a good story
   1. Each idea must belong in the story.
   2. The ideas must be in the right order.
   3. The ending must result from the ideas and the order.

VII. Reports

A. Writing a conclusion
   1. Repeat the main ideas of the composition, using different words.
   2. Tell why you think the topic is important, or what it means to other people.
   3. Suggest that your readers do something, such as read about the topic, think about a new idea, or even change their minds.
B. The writer must learn to tell how good his sources are.
   1. Is the person I am interviewing or the one who wrote the book an expert? How can I find out? Check the book jacket or a library resource.
   2. Is the information up-to-date? Check the copyright page.
   3. Am I getting facts or opinions? Look for examples which support statements.
   4. Can I check the facts with another source? Which source is better? Check the qualifications of the author.

C. Read newspapers and magazines in order to get up-to-date information on a subject. Keep in mind the kind of facts you are looking for.
D. Try to use more than one news source, so that you get more than one point of view on a subject.
E. In choosing a topic, consider:
   1. Who the audience will be
   2. Your own interests
   3. How much information you can find
F. Sources of information
   1. Books
   2. Pictures
   3. Pamphlets
   4. Interviews
   5. Magazines
   6. Personal experience
   7. Newspapers
   8. TV and radio
   9. Letters

VIII. Revision

A. The process of revision includes: survey, revise, proofread, and correct
B. Survey
   1. Does the paper say exactly what you mean it to say?
   2. Does it keep to the point?
   3. Will it be clear to others?
   4. Is it well organized?
   5. Is it in sequential order?
C. Revise
   1. Get rid of unnecessary words and ideas.
   2. Get a good beginning and a good ending.
   3. Consider better ways to express your idea.
D. Proofread
   1. Check for misspelled words.
   2. Check for well-constructed sentences, correct punctuation, and capitalization.
E. Correct
   1. Rewrite with necessary corrections.

Poetry

I. Language

A. Poems often use similes.
B. Poems often use metaphors.
C. Personification gives human qualities to non-human things.

II. Rhyme and Rhythm

A. Rhymes repeat to make a pattern.
B. Rhythm too can form pattern.
C. Some poems do not have rhyme or a definite rhythm.
D. Poems try to make you feel or visualize.
E. Be careful of too many similes in a poem.

III. Many poems tell the story of an event or express a mood.

IV. Limericks have a pattern of stressed syllables.

A. Lines 1 and 2 and 5 have three stressed syllables.
B. Lines 3 and 4 have only two stressed syllables.

Oral

I. Discussions

A. Conversation is the talk between two friends on things that interest them both.
B. When several people come together to talk about ways to solve a problem or to find out more about something, they usually carry on an activity called a "discussion."
C. In discussion and conversation most people state a main idea and then give reasons or examples. They give a topic sentence and subtopics just as in writing a paragraph.
D. Many people do not support their statements (the unsupported assertion) and so generally produce confusion and often antagonism. People who state opinions have an obligation to explain themselves, and to explain honestly.
E. An anecdote is a brief story told to help explain what you mean.

II. Arguments

A. In an argument you must support what you have said in your topic sentence with other statements of fact and sensible opinion.
B. You are testing the truth of your idea by listening to opposing arguments or to questions.

C. Not only facts are persuasive. There are, of course, sound opinions and unsound ones.
D. The purpose is not only to win the argument but also to search for convincing reasons.
E. A fact should be verifiable by direct examination or by checking with a valid source or reference book.
F. Kinds of faulty reasoning:
    1. Circular reasoning—Both ends of the statement state the same opinion without giving a reason, Ex: I like that funny movie because it's funny.
    2. Does not follow—Some results require many more causes than the statement indicates, Ex: He has big muscles. He must drink fruit juice.
    3. Arguing about people—This attacks the person and not his argument.
    4. Rationalizing—Making up reasons to defend a poor idea or a wrong action.
    5. Name calling—Similar to 3, casting doubt on the reasons by casting doubt on the speaker.
G. Propaganda
    1. Propaganda may be used for good or for evil purposes.
    2. Propaganda techniques
        a. Bandwagon or everybody's-doing-it technique--stating that everyone is doing or having something.
        b. Appeal to the emotions—try to make the listener feel that he must comply with the propaganda without considering a reason.
        c. Testimonial—a famous person recommends something.
        d. Command or imperative statement—propaganda can command you to do something.
    3. Things to ask yourself when you hear propaganda
        a. What am I being asked to do?
        b. Who is asking me to do it? Why?
        c. Is he twisting words to make me act or to make me believe?

III. Courteous Complaint
    A. When you offer a complaint, control your voice; keep it low pitched.
    B. Angry words can close the door of communication.

IV. Storytelling
    A. Limit the number of people, the action, the length of time, and the area in which it happens.
    B. Make the end of the story the most exciting part.

V. Interviewing
    A. When you talk with someone to gain information, you are having an interview.
    B. You can ask questions or for examples. You cannot do this with books.
    C. Suggestions for an interview
        1. Call or write the person you want to interview. Explain what you want to know. Ask what would be a good time for you to come.
        2. Have five to ten good questions ready in the order in which you think you will ask them. Other questions will occur to you as you talk.
        3. Have pencils and notepaper with you.
        4. Arrive on time. When the interview starts, introduce yourself. Tell again why you have come.
        5. Keep to the topic.
        6. Write down important ideas and key words to help you remember what is said.
        7. When the interview is over, thank the person for his time.
        8. Look over your notes as soon as you can. Make sure that your notes are clear while your memory of the interview is fresh.

VI. Oral Reports
    A. Nervousness or tension is natural and usually desirable for a speaker.
    B. An appearance of alertness is much more important than a specific stance.
    C. Hints in giving a report
        1. Be well prepared.

2. Practice giving your talk. Good speakers often give their talks before a mirror for practice.
3. Keep in mind that you cannot please everybody, but almost everyone will listen courteously.
4. Take your time. Begin slowly and continue to speak slowly.
5. Be yourself. If you look pleasant and appear interested in your topic, your listeners will probably enjoy your talk. Do not slouch. Move around or write on the chalkboard when it seems right to do so.

Word Types

I. Verbs
   A. Two verbs may be used to form a compound predicate in a sentence.
   B. Since the past participle of many irregular verbs ends in -en, this form is often called the -en form, even though it may have other endings.
   C. Generally, words which use the -en form in the participle are older words. So-called "modern" verbs nearly always have the -ed ending (televised, computerized).
   D. Signals to identify verbs:
      1. Past participle form of a verb requires an auxiliary
      2. Past form of a verb usually takes a -d or -ed ending
      3. Position in the sentence

II. Pronouns
   A. Possessive pronouns replace possessive nouns.
   B. Pronouns that can follow verbs can also follow prepositions.
   C. Subject pronouns are pronouns used as subject.
   D. The symbol N^P indicates in a sentence pattern that a pronoun is taking the place of a noun.

III. Adjectives
   A. Adjectives may change their forms to show degrees of comparison.
   B. Common adjective endings are -er, -est, and -ful.

IV. Adverbs show degree of comparison by adding -er, -est or adding more or most before them.

V. Noun signals
   A. A, an, and the often appear before nouns. They are called noun signals.
   B. They are also called articles or special adjectives.

VI. A test sentence for determiners is: (The) old fish swam away.

VII. Prepositions do not change their forms.

VIII. Conjunctions
   A. Subordinating conjunctions are used to introduce the part of a complex sentence which is less important than, or subordinate to, the main idea.
   B. Conjunctions are used to form compound subjects and compound verbs.

Punctuation

I. Comma
   A. Use a comma after the name of the state or the year if other words follow in the sentence.
   B. To separate a word group that starts with a "danger word" from the main idea of the sentence (independent clauses).
   C. To separate words which might misread without a comma.

II. Quotation marks are used around the titles of poems, stories, and songs when referring to them.

III. Use a hyphen to join the parts of an unusual or "made-up" adjective or noun.

Usage

I. Similes
   A. Similes are comparisons that use like or as.
   B. Similes compare objects which are unlike except in the way in which they are being compared.

II. Metaphors
   A. Metaphors are the use of words to get a striking effect.

B. A metaphor says that something is something else, not like something else.

III. Homophones sound the same but are spelled differently and have different meanings. Ex: Nome and gnome; right and write.

IV. Homographs are words written the same but which have different meanings and pronunciations. Ex: pre'sent and pre sent'.

V. Words can change meaning because of words around them, their context.

Miscellaneous

I. Language

A. Language is an arbitrary symbolic system of sounds.
B. A word is a symbol. This means that it stands for a person, an action, or a quality of something.
C. Words can arouse feelings in people which will differ from the feelings of other people.
D. American English has changed through time because of isolation, borrowing, and invention.
E. Radio and TV are also beginning to break down dialect differences within the country.
F. All languages are constantly changing.
G. The structure of a language is the way words work together to produce meaning.
H. Everyone intuitively knows a great deal about grammar.
I. English is a word-order language.
J. Adults sometimes never learn the sound system of a new language and speak with an accent.

II. Dialects

A. Language changes have brought about many kinds of English. Each of these different ways of speaking is called a dialect.
B. Every person speaks a dialect.
C. Dialects are valuable and interesting. They are part of what makes America interesting.
D. The U.S. has several main dialect areas. Within each of these areas there are sub-dialects.
E. Different dialects often use different words for the same object. These differences are interesting and colorful.
F. National TV has an effect on dialect differences. They are becoming less noticeable.

III. Dictionaries

A. Pronunciation of words is more likely to change than spelling or meaning. Spelling is slowest to change.
B. A lexicographer is a linguist who focuses on word usage.
C. Dictionaries often show the part of speech or class that a word belongs to.
D. Accent marks
   1. Accent marks are used to indicate syllables which receive the greatest stress when you pronounce them.
   2. When there is more than one accent mark, the larger or darker one indicates greater stress.
   3. One-syllable words have no accent marks.
   4. If two ways of pronouncing a word are shown, both are correct. The first one is usually preferred.
E. A macron is a straight line over a vowel (ā).

IV. Bibliography

A. A bibliography is a list of books, magazines, articles, and other printed sources of information which a writer used in preparing a report.
B. Giving credit to those whose ideas a writer has used is more important than the form of the bibliography, but it is desirable to have the whole bibliography arranged in the same way.

V. Skimming

A. Read through the main headings. These headings are usually printed in heavy type.
B. Look for the main idea in each paragraph. This main idea will sometimes be contained in a single sentence at the beginning or at the end of the paragraph.

C. Look for important names, dates, places, definitions, principles, and ideas.
D. Look for heavy type, words in italics, and other signals that alert you to important ideas and facts.
E. As you skim, try to get a clear idea of the outline or organization the author has followed. This will serve as a summary of what you are reading and will help you to see how important ideas, facts, and principles are related.

GRADE VI

Composition

I. Sentences

A. Sentence patterns

1. NVNN

a. Mother/gave me a cookie.
sub-ject — verb — in-direct ob-ject — direct object

b. N(pro) VNN
We/chose Larry president.
sub-ject — verb — direct ob-ject — object comple-ment

2. NVNAdj
The class/found Larry capable.
subject — verb — direct ob-ject — object comple-ment

B. When two or more independent clauses are joined by connectives such as and, but, and or, they form a compound sentence.
C. Basic sentences grow by adding modifiers, words which limit the meaning by making it more specific. Use: adjectives, adverbs, prep. phrases, and appositives.
1. Appositives are always next to the noun they modify.
2. Appositives refer to the same thing as another noun.
D. Participial phrases, such as smiling happily, may be used to expand nouns.
E. Relative clauses expand sentences.
1. Relative clauses are introduced by relating or connecting words.
2. Clauses contain subjects and predicates.
F. Adverb clauses expand the verb part of a basic sentence.
1. Adverb clauses usually add something about when, why, or how.
G. The subject always follows the verb in sentences that begin with Here is, There were, etc.
H. In some sentences the subject comes after part of the predicate and before the simple predicate.
I. A verb that takes an object NP is being used transitively.
J. VP > tense + Be + (Adv-p) (Adj) (NP)
K. VP > tense + V_I + (Adv-X)

II. Transformations

A. Question transforms place the subject after the helping verb and before the main verb.
B. Passive transforms use the past participle of the verb with a form of to be. The direct object becomes the subject of the sentence and the subject becomes the object of the preposition by.
C. The relative clause transform combines two ideas by making one a relative clause which modifies the subject or direct object.
D. The appositive transform follows a noun and means the same as the noun.

III. Participial phrases modify nouns.

A. It consists of a verb form (a participle), its modifiers, and its object, if it has one.
B. It functions as an adjective.

IV. Paragraphs

A. A concluding sentence should summarize or complete the paragraph.

B. Reasons are a good proof for a topic sentence.
C. Paragraphs can be arranged by time or space order.
D. Transitional Devices
   1. A word in the second sentence may be the same as a word in the first sentence.
   2. A pronoun in the second sentence may refer to a word in the first sentence.
   3. Connecting words that refer to the time, place, or thought of the first sentence may be used in the second.

V. Stories
   A. Point of View
      1. Third person stories are told with the author as omniscient onlooker.
      2. First person stories are told with the author taking the part of himself or a character in his story.
   B. Many good stories tell about people overcoming difficulties or dangers in order to reach their goal.
   C. Suspense is created when the final outcome is in doubt or when there is a feeling of danger or doom.
   D. Guide for planning
      1. List major events.
      2. List minor events and details.
      3. Include answers to questions: Who? Where? When? What? Why? What finally happened?
      4. Check your plan to be sure you have a clear beginning, middle, and ending for your story.
      5. Be sure you have included all necessary details so that the action will be clear and easy to follow.
      6. Make sure you have built suspense and kept "What finally happened?" until the very end of the story.
   E. The descriptive detail you use should really distinguish one person from everyone else.
   F. Myths are stories created by ancient or primitive peoples to explain various things about the world and nature which they could not account for in any other way.

VI. Editing
   A. A content editor checks the organization and accuracy of the information in a paper.
   B. Copy editor checks appearance and mechanics of a paper.

VII. News Writing—Newspapers
   A. News writing that states all essential information and follows this with increasingly specific details uses inverted pyramid form.
   B. News writing supplies details about what a reporter saw and heard, not what he thinks.
   C. The managing editor is the person in charge of a newspaper.
   D. Page makeup is the arrangement of stories and pictures on a page.

Poetry

I. The power of poetry is its ability to say much in a very few words.

II. Ballads are stories told in song.

III. Other ways to create a mood
   A. Repeat words or sounds.
   B. Use words that imitate sounds.
   C. Invent words that help create the mood.

Oral

I. Conversation
   A. The three ingredients of good conversation in order of their importance are thinking, listening, and talking.
   B. In a good conversation, every person takes two parts.
      1. He talks,
      2. When others talk, he listens politely and carefully.
   C. When you do not agree, say so at the proper time. Then give your reasons for disagreeing and state your own point of view.
   D. If you have not heard what someone has said, say so politely at the proper time. Then ask the person if he will repeat what he has said.

E. When you do not understand what someone has said, ask the person politely to explain his remarks.
F. Help others take part by asking them questions to help them start talking.
G. Listen carefully. Make others feel that the thoughts and ideas they contribute are worthwhile.

II. Discussion

A. Informal—most common form. Keep to the subject and take turns speaking. No preplanned order of speakers.
B. Round-table—four to eight discuss before an audience which can ask questions or add ideas at the end.
C. Panel
1. Three or more speakers face audience and give prepared speeches.
2. Each speaker represents a different viewpoint or subtopic.
3. Chairman opens discussion and ties together ideas and opinions.
4. Later, audience may take part.
5. Summarizing a panel discussion
a. Tell why the group decided to discuss the subject.
b. Tell important ideas expressed in the discussion.
c. Tell what decision or conclusion the group reached as a result of the discussion.
d. Express the ideas given by the group, not your own ideas.
D. Suggestions for Leader or Chairman
1. Introduce topic clearly and in an interesting way.
2. Introduce each speaker with a brief explanation.
3. Do not let any speaker take more than his share of time.
4. Summarize points.
5. Keep discussion moving and keep it from becoming a heated argument.
E. Suggestions to Speakers
1. Make notes of important points to discuss.
2. Know ideas well enough to discuss easily.
3. Speak clearly; use acceptable English.
4. Don't interrupt.
5. Disagree courteously if there is a difference of opinion.
F. Suggestions for Audiences
1. Listen courteously and attentively.
2. Make notes of questions to ask later.
3. Speak only when called upon.
4. Only add information related to the topic that has not been mentioned.
5. Ask questions and disagree politely.

III. Reading a Poem Aloud

A. Read the poem silently to determine meaning and mood.
B. Learn the meaning and pronunciation of unfamiliar words.
C. Practice reading the poem aloud, saying each word distinctly.
D. Group the words to make the meaning clear.
E. Bring out the musical quality of rhythm and rhyme, but avoid a sing-song rhythm.
F. By the tones of your voice indicate the poet's mood.

IV. Parliamentary Rules

A. Order of business
1. The meeting is "called to order" by the president or chairman.
2. The minutes of the last meeting are read by the secretary. (Minutes are a report of what happened at the meeting.)
a. They may be approved as read.
b. They may be added to or corrected; then approved.
3. The treasurer's report is given and accepted.
4. Reports from committees are called for by the chairman or president.
5. Unfinished business is taken up.
6. New business is taken up.
7. The program is presented, if one is scheduled.
8. The meeting is adjourned (ended).

B. Motions
   1. A member who wishes to speak stands.
   2. He speaks when the chairman recognizes (calls upon) him.
   3. When a member speaks, he "addresses the chair," by saying, "Mr. President," or perhaps "Madam Chairman."
   4. If a member has an idea that he wants the group to vote upon, he makes a motion. He says, "I move that...".
   5. The motion must be seconded to be voted upon. Another member who agrees with the idea says, "I second the motion." This member does not need to stand.
   6. The chairman repeats the motion. He calls for discussion. Then he calls for a vote on the motion.
   7. The chairman announces the result. The motion is "carried" or "lost". A majority vote (one half plus one of the total number of members) carries the motion.

C. Duties of the Chairman
   1. Before the meeting:
      a. He learns the order of business and plans the agenda (plan of things to be done).
      b. He collects any information that may be needed.
   2. During the meeting:
      a. He presides (takes charge) in a businesslike way.
      b. He talks no more than necessary.
      c. He makes sure that everyone is courteous.
      d. He sees that the order of business is followed and motions are properly made.

D. Duties of the Secretary
   1. He may be responsible for notices of meetings.
   2. He keeps records, such as the following:
      a. Lists of committee members
      b. Club constitution
      c. Notes about unfinished business
   3. He keeps the minutes, which should include:
      a. Date, place, time, and kind of meeting and who presided
      b. All motions, whether carried or not

Word Types

I. Verbs
   A. The verb in a sentence should agree in number with the subject.
   B. A test sentence for verbs:
      The children _____ (happily) (happy). (it)
   C. Five principle parts of verbs:
      1. Simple—verb base before anything is added
      2. Third person singular—-s form
      3. Present participle—-ing form, has an auxiliary when used as a verb
      4. Past tense—adds -ed or changes form within the verb
      5. Past participle—adds -ed or -en or changes within, has an auxiliary when used as a verb

II. Nouns
   A. The possessive is usually formed by nouns which symbolize living things.
   B. Gerunds are the present participle forms of verbs used as nouns.
   C. The infinitive is the simple form of any verb with to before it and used as a noun.
   D. Noun clauses are clauses that function as nouns.

III. Pronouns
   A. Personal pronouns are a subclass of nouns.
   B. They fill the same position and perform the same function as nouns.
   C. The antecedent is the noun which goes before the pronoun in the sentence and is replaced by the pronoun. This is also called the referent.
   D. Pronouns with no definite referent or antecedent are indefinite pronouns.

IV. Adjectives

A. A proper adjective is formed from a proper noun and begins with a capital letter. Ex: Persian rug, Japanese beetle
B. Some adjectives are usually not compared: perfect, unique, round, square, eternal
C. Adjective test sentence: The _____ boys seemed (very) ____.

V. Adverbs

A. Some adverbs can not be compared: always, here, never, now.
B. The adverb "only" should be placed as close as possible to the word it modifies.
C. Test sentence for adverbs: He worked _____.
D. Adverbials can tell place, manner, frequency, time.
E. Adverbials can be made from single-word adverbs or prepositional phrases.
F. Adverbials may be optional additions to the VP of all basic sentences.

VI. Prepositional phrases are word groups made from a preposition plus an NP.

VII. Determiners

A. The, a, and an are called articles.
B. This, that, these, and those are called demonstratives.
C. Many, every, some, etc., are called indefinite.

VIII. Modals

A. Modals are can, may, must, shall, and will.
B. Modals are used optionally in the VP.

IX. Interjections

A. A strong interjection at the beginning of a sentence is followed by an exclamation mark.
B. A mild interjection at the beginning of a sentence is followed by a comma.

X. Qualifiers or intensifiers are words like very, rather, so, too, most, less, etc.

Punctuation

I. Capital letters

A. Use capital letters for the Deity, religions, sacred writings.
B. Use them for proper names used as adjectives—French bread.
C. Use them for specific regions—the East.

II. Colon is used to introduce a list except when the list directly follows a verb or a preposition.

III. Abbreviations do not always require periods.

A. Some government agencies—FBI, NATO
B. TV and radio stations—KDKA, WTHB-TV
C. Some technical terms—TNT, SOS, mph

IV. Comma

A. Use to set off appositives and word groups which interrupt the sentence.
B. To separate from the rest of the sentence modifiers which add information to the sentence but are not absolutely necessary (nonrestrictive modifiers).

V. Parentheses

A. To show that doubt exists about a possible fact - (?).
B. To confirm figures, especially in letters.
C. To enclose information added to a sentence which does not change the basic meaning or structure of a sentence.

VI. Semicolon

A. Use in place of a conjunction between two closely related independent clauses.
B. Before connecting words like beside, however, and therefore when they join independent clauses.
C. Between items in a series if the series contains commas.

VII. Period

A. Three periods before and after a quotation mean that the words are out of context or removed from the total group of words that surrounded them.

Usage

I. An idiom is a group of words whose meaning is different from the meaning of the individual words.

II. Many words have more than one meaning.

Ex: He played a scale on the piano.
He weighed the potatoes on the scale.

Miscellaneous

I. Language

A. Standard (American) English is words or expressions that have become acceptable in most communities throughout the U.S.
B. Colloquialism is an expression used mainly in informal conversation; usually phrases rather than single words.
C. Slang is informal language accepted by a small group of people; usually words, rather than phrases.
D. Words can pass from one kind of English to another. Slang words usually go out of use very quickly.
E. You unconsciously obey the basic rules of English grammar in putting words together and making sentences.
F. No one can tell when language started.
G. English is a member of the Indo-European family of languages.
H. English developed from languages brought by the people who invaded England.
1. A few of our words come from the Celts.
2. Many common words have Anglo-Saxon origins.
I. Three periods of language
1. Old English—spoken before the Norman Invasion
2. Middle English—spoken from about 1100 to about 1450
3. Modern English—spoken from about 1450 to today
J. Other sources of words
1. Introduction of printing
2. Interest in learning
3. Trade and exploration
4. Invention and discovery

II. Dictionaries

A. Diacritical marks indicate pronunciation.
B. A straight line over a vowel indicates the name sound or long sound.
C. A curved line over a vowel or no mark indicates a short sound.
D. Diacritical marks may vary from one dictionary to another.
E. A schwa indicates vowel sounds in unaccented syllables.
F. Many list base form of nouns and verbs, forms with irregular spelling and variant spellings.

III. Magazine Articles

A. Be sure to report the magazine title, date of the issue, article title and the author.
B. Magazines are a good source of pleasure and information.

IV. Some Topics for Studying Films

A. Photography
B. Casting of characters
C. Dialogue and action
D. Story
E. Acting

V. Some Points for a TV Review

A. Type of program
B. Performance
C. Purpose
D. Interesting, informative, or entertaining parts

COMMENTS

From examining the four English language arts textbooks sampled, it becomes clear that there is an attempt to teach an all-inclusive language program in the elementary grades. It is a program that tends to appeal

to the academically oriented, white, middle-class society and is geared toward "correctness" of language production rather than toward the goal of developing language competence and control.

These language texts are loaded with capitalization, punctuation, and usage rules which are repeated again at the junior and senior high school level. Some analysis of the usage aspect of language must be made by scholars and taught to children in different social settings and in a realistic, developmental way so that this whole category of language need not be repetitive.

Also, the irregular aspects of morphology and syntax are stressed without making certain that children understand the regular structures.

Very little is said about rhetoric, semantics, critical thinking, and logical thought in the writing and thinking process. Little seems to be known about the way children learn to write and what they can be expected to do at different age levels and how sex and socioeconomic background affect this written language development.

A most critical lack in these texts is a test or indicator of linguistic ability, written language ability, and oral language ability which will indicate to the teacher just what the child's language needs are.

Language operations take place in an environment with other humans. Nothing in these series presents a method for teachers to establish a language learning environment in which there is an interchange of language among peer groups and other types of grouping within the classroom situation. The teaching method is all prescriptive with little effort devoted to the functions of language, the motivations for using language, the dialects of language, and the available and developing skills possessed by the student.

Composition sections in these texts do not make distinctions between writing as an act of composing ideas and the linguistic concepts children learn about the structure of English. A clearer focus in the process of composition and the learning of linguistic concepts is needed.

Most alarming is that the writers of these language arts texts for children assume that children can read, understand, and enjoy these materials. Language arts instruction is completely separated from reading instruction, when in reality the child should be involved in manipulation of the oral and written language at all times.

In general, these texts for children propose to do too much with little desired results. They lack focus; they are highly repetitive; they each have a basic language learning theory upon which to build teaching methodology. They are prescriptive in a way which is not realistic in terms of the way people use language in different types of communication situations.

Descriptive linguistic and psycholinguistic studies in children's language development have been conducted at the Wisconsin Research and Development Center for Cognitive Learning. The following papers can be of assistance to elementary English language arts curriculum designers, practitioners, and teacher educators:

(1) Golub, Lester S., Wayne C. Fredrick, & Shelby L. Johnson. Development and Refinement of Measures of Linguistic Abilities. Working Paper No. 33. Madison: Wisconsin Research and Development Center for Cognitive Learning, 1970.

(2) Fredrick, Wayne C., Lester S. Golub, & Shelby L. Johnson. Analysis of the Linguistic Ability Test, Grades 4 and 6. Technical Report No. 121. Madison: Wisconsin Research and Development Center for Cognitive Learning, 1970.

(3) Pooley, Robert C. & Lester S. Golub. Concepts and Objectives for Learning the Structure of English in Grades 7, 8, and 9. Theoretical Paper No. 22. Madison: Wisconsin Research and Development Center for Cognitive Learning, 1969.

(4) Golub, Lester S. & Wayne C. Fredrick. Linguistic Structures and Deviations in the Discourse of Fourth and Sixth Graders. Technical Report No. 152. Madison: Wisconsin Research and Development Center for Cognitive Learning, 1970.

SUMMARY OF NEEDS

The summary of needs as derived from textbooks written for teaching and learning the Language Arts follows.

1. Since instructional objectives in texts on the teaching of elementary language are stated in very general terms, specific objectives and strategies for arriving at these objectives are needed.

2. Since the language of children and teachers living in urban settings is different from the feminine polite society of the classroom, a more realistic approach to teaching language usage and dialects is needed.

3. Classroom materials and instructional materials in oral and written language learning are needed for urban teachers and children.

4. Since the traditional focus in language arts is in correctness rather than production, a model for learning oral and written language is needed. The model should account for the different linguistic abilities of urban, rural, and suburban children.

5. Instructional objectives and techniques in children's language learning need to be developed which are mutually exclusive and complement the secondary school language objectives and techniques.

6. A method of diagnostically evaluating children's linguistic ability is needed.

7. Since elementary English language arts texts written for children tend to present an all-inclusive language program for academically oriented white, middle-class children, language texts for children need to contain materials of children from American subcultures.

8. Language arts texts need to be geared to the goal of developing language competence and control rather than toward correctness.

9. Since the protocol of language usage is taught in the school, sociolinguistic scholars need to make a proposal of what aspects of social usage can be best taught to children and under what circumstances.

10. Textbooks for children's language arts classes needs to include rhetoric, semantics, critical thinking and logical thought processes, and reading language, rather than only descriptions of the language.

11. Tests and other evaluative tools are needed to help teachers measure and diagnose children's linguistic ability.

12. Since language operations take place in an environment with other humans, a method is needed for teachers to establish a language learning environment in which there is an interchange of language among peer groups and other age groups.

13. Language arts textbooks for children need to distinguish between writing as an act of composing ideas and the concepts about the structure of English (grammar).

14. Language arts texts for children need a focus; they need not be all-inclusive language texts but must be selective in the concepts taught to children based on different types of communication situations.

15. Language-producing games and activities need to be developed for use in the open classroom and which provide the child with creative, individualized language experiences.

III

STUDENTS' AND TEACHERS' FUTURE NEEDS IN SCHOOL, SOCIETY AND CULTURE

Although the term "future shock" might be new, the experience is familiar to any adult living in an industrialized, urban society. Future shock is simply the realization that we are now living under conditions on reserve for the unknown future of science fiction. The reading of Aldous Huxley's Brave New World Revisited after reading Brave New World provides a vivid experience in future shock. We are now experiencing the forecasts of ecologists, demographers, and international arms specialists made over the past two decades. Yesterday's science fiction is rapidly becoming today's reality, and education figures prominently in shaping tomorrow's social climate. What we want in the way of a social, political, psychological, and cultural world of tomorrow depends greatly upon our educational philosophy of today.

A few educators have had the courage to look into their educated crystal ball and have indicated certain future directions in which the society, the school, and the individual are aimed.

Green (1969) indicates that in the future there will be less reliance on the family, church, and shop as the primary agencies of socialization and more reliance in the school for these functions. The school tends to become a total institution. In order for the school to become total institutions, they need the assistance of their home communities. Education in these schools will be directed at the needs of society rather than the needs of the individual; however, there will be some traditional education to preserve the collective memory of the culture, some humanistic education to cultivate the notion of independence of the individual, and some religious education to nurture a form of conscience and reverence for others which is mediated by a holy force. In this type of total institution; the managerial education directed at the needs of society will represent reality, the humanistic education will be diminished and will represent only ideology.

When we compare Green's statement with Shane and Shane (1970) the nature of the school of the future does not look democratic or appealing. In 25 years, there will be fourteen (14) million persons enrolled in higher education, with education being continuous with some persons preparing for a second or third career in middle age. Much education will take place at home or in centers where self-instructive materials can be used with the school becoming a reference and social center. Nationwide personal information data banks will record, among other information, a person's educational progress from birth to death certificate, and personal privacy will be eliminated. Added to this will be drugs used to modify the personality, and genetic controls will be placed in hereditary factors.

Certain curriculum changes in the future can help people have some control over their destinies in the educational environment described above. Burns and Brooks (1970) indicate some of these future curriculum changes. These writers indicate that children will have to efficiently learn basic materials and skills that will have wide transfer value. Students will have to acquire an ability to learn independently outside the classroom and they will have to learn how to perceive interrelationships and processes, rather than bits of knowledge. The student will do this by defining problems, gathering data, suggesting hypotheses, generalizing, proposing novel solutions, and reaching conclusions rather than by gathering bits of unrelated knowledge. Information usage will be more important than information acquisition. As these curriculum changes come about, survey courses will become taboo and be replaced by in-depth courses; textbook learning will become outdated and will be replaced by current content

materials. Much of the utilitarian aspects of education will be replaced by leisure time educational activities.

Farrell (1970) has recently studied the future of English teaching in the schools. Farrell has observed all of the facts stated in the above two studies. He also notes that teaching behavior seems to be impervious to research finding since English teacher education is inadequate in the following areas: (1) curriculum reform, (2) methods in computer-assisted instruction (CAI), (3) preparing for future roles rather than current roles, (4) preparing materials and methods other than lecture, (5) preparing English teachers to teach language, composition, literary criticism, film, world literatures. Farrell also points out that it is easier to make plans for the year 2000 than it is for 2 or 3 years hence because of such rapidly changeable variables as population, violence, both national and international, urbanization, economics, and employment. The gulf between the old verities and American life as lived today is evidenced in what is now called the "generation gap."

Farrell sampled four groups of people on questions concerning the teaching of English: (1) learning theorists, (2) secondary curriculum specialists, (3) educational media specialists, and (4) English scholars. Their predictions were as follows:

The learning theorists:

(1) Organization and presentation of content will be more clearly in line with established theories of learning.

(2) Testing will be continuous, more accurate, and more significant.

(3) Lock-step instruction will wane and the specification of individual differences and their effects upon learning will become more precise.

(4) Computer-assisted instruction, TV instruction, and other forms of eletronically modulated instruction will not only increase but may eventually redefine the responsibilities and behavior of the teacher.

(5) Early instruction of children will affect the content of secondary programs and the relationships between early and late training will become better understood.

(6) Interdisciplinary approaches and problem solving will increase.

(7) Basic reading skills in elementary grades will give way to interpretive reading skills on the secondary level.

The audio-visual specialists:

(1) There will be a wide acceptance, support, and justification of audio-visual media.

(2) This media will be better designed and more varied.

(3) Computer-assisted instruction (CAI) will be available for a variety of purposes.

(4) Multi-media will receive greater emphasis than does print.

(5) Flexibility of instruction will affect school architecture, classroom organization, and teacher roles.

(6) Students will be actively involved in planning their own learning activities.

(7) There will be sharper accountability, evaluation, and feedback to administrators and parents.

The secondary curriculum specialists:

(1) The curriculum will provide for flexibility of structure and mobility of students. Classrooms will be open and ungraded in each content area.

(2) The curriculum will include new content, as well as new arrangements of old content.

(3) There will be increased emphasis on individualized instruction and problem solving.

(4) There will be less emphasis on print and more emphasis on other media.

(5) Stress on human relations will be greater.

(6) Teachers' performance in classrooms will be related to research in teaching.

(7) Teachers will be staffed according to abilities and temperament for better mental health and unionization.

(8) Developments in English teaching will probably lag behind those in general education and environment.

The English specialists:

(1) The curriculum in English will be more flexible, its objectives and means of evaluation more clearly defined, its emphasis more upon process than upon content.

(2) Students will have numerous opportunities for individualized instruction. Basic skill in English language learning will be computerized.

(3) Private industry will play an important part in developing new educational facilities and programs.

(4) Individual school districts will have more responsibility in inservice preparation of teachers and differential staffing.

(5) The gap between cognitive and affective learning will lessen. As a result there will be a greater emphasis on the affective theory (interpretive) of literature rather than a strict adherance to what the author is directly saying.

(6) There will be a variety in content and organization of literary programs with integration of popular literature and the traditional.

(7) Language study will be broadened in the curriculum with teachers more receptive to children's social dialect.

(8) There will be more attention to the process underlying the teaching of written and oral composition.

(9) Students will learn about and from multi-media rather than just print.

(10) Students and teachers will have access to new methods of information retrieval.

SUMMARY OF FUTURE NEEDS OF TEACHERS AND STUDENTS

From the preceding forecast, the following future needs for preparation of teachers of elementary English can be inferred:

(1) Teachers should learn how to use discovery approaches to language learning.

(2) Teachers need to learn how to help students see the social and psychological relevance of language learning.

(3) Teachers need to learn how to develop language learning curriculums for a variety of students.

(4) Teachers need to be familiar with oral and written language growth and development of children.

(5) Teachers of disadvantaged students must learn to evaluate student progress with other members of the staff.

(6) Teachers of disadvantaged children should learn the special techniques and skills essential to teaching language in this environment.

(7) Teachers must learn to evaluate their effectiveness by the change of language behavior of their students.

(8) Teachers must learn the use and practice of creative dramatics as language media in the classroom.

(9) Teachers must learn how to stimulate and receive children's writing.

(10) Teachers should be familiar with the geographical and social dialect of their students and must know how to exploit this dialect in teaching reading and writing.

(11) Teachers must become familiar with techniques for teaching language in the open-classroom, individualized learning environment.

(12) Teachers of disadvantaged should learn about the sociology and psychology of these students from

anthropologists, sociologists, psychologists, city planners, and political scientists and must have relationships with children and adults from these areas.

From the preceding forecast, future needs for elementary children in the area of English language learning can be inferred:

(1) Children will have to use language in a way that will help them become aware of future changes in the social, political, psychological, and cultural world view.

(2) Children will have to use language for communication and critical thinking in a rapidly changing and media-loaded world.

(3) Children will have to learn to read rapidly and with comprehension, complicated materials in a variety of subject areas and for home instruction without the aid of a classroom teacher.

(4) Children will have to use language in ways that will allow them to use and process knowledge.

(5) Children will have to learn how to use the language of media as well as the language of the textbook, which is rapidly becoming outmoded.

(6) Children will have to use language in planning their own learning activities.

(7) Children will have to use language to understand changes in traditional content and to be able to interpret changes.

(8) Children will have to use language to communicate with children from other socioeconomic and geographic areas.

IV

PROPOSED COMPONENTS OF AN ORAL AND WRITTEN LANGUAGE LEARNING PROGRAM

The following "Model of Objectives for Teaching Language as Human Discourse and Communication" places English language learning out of the traditional model of language "correctness" and places language learning in the mental, thinking area of the learning process.

Although correctness and skills are still included in the model they are taught in the framework of language production with the child being able to experiment, through interdisciplinary subjects and in a variety of media, his thoughts, knowledge, and human reaction to ideas which bombard him at every moment. In this model, oral language is the launching pad upon which reading and writing grow and develop in a mutually inclusive and supportive manner.

This kind of model also lends itself to the open classroom where many individualized instructional procedures take place at all times. It also lends itself to current thinking in educational pedagogy, child psychology, and linguistic science. However, it calls for a teacher with much more background in teaching language and the theories of language learning. Before such a model can be incorporated teachers will have to be trained and classrooms will have to be redesigned, and administrators will have to encourage teachers to realize that silence is <u>not</u> all golden in a language learning situation.

An evaluative component is also a different feature of this model as it would allow the teacher to evaluate children's individual progress at carefully calibrated intervals so that memory features as well as content learning can be taken into consideration. Educational accountability will call for different diagnostic types of evaluation.

Figure 1

A MODEL OF OBJECTIVES FOR TEACHING LANGUAGE AS HUMAN DISCOURSE AND COMMUNICATION

Written Language

Reading Component (decoding)

(1) Code-breaking: Phoneme-Grapheme Correspondences
(2) Reading for comprehension at level of age group
(3) Critical reading: Answering why, what, and how questions
(4) Interpretive (creative) reading: How does the reading experience relate to the reader
(5) Thinking to communicate ideas resulting from reading

Writing Component (encoding)

(1) Handwriting, print, cursive, typing
(2) Spelling
(3) Development of vocabulary and concepts
(4) Sentence sense and creation
(5) Paragraph development
(6) Thinking to organize ideas and concepts in logical and interesting ways

Language Evaluation and Feedback Component

(1) Linguistic Ability Growth Measurement
(2) Composition Ability Growth Measurement
(3) Reading Ability Growth Measurement
(4) Logic and Semantic Growth Measurement

Oral Language Component
(encoding and decoding)

(1) Discussion of reading
(2) Oral reading
(3) Interpretive reading
(4) Creative dramatics
(5) Expression of inner voice
(6) Dialect and reading skills
(7) Thinking to communicate ideas resulting from talking with others

REFERENCES

Ames, W. S. The understanding vocabulary of first-grade pupils. Elementary English, 1964, 41, 64-68.

Bailey, B. L. Some aspects of the impact of linguistics on language teaching in disadvantaged communities. Elementary English, 1968, 45, 570-578.

Barnes, D. L. An experimental study in written composition. Elementary English, 1964, 41, 51-52.

Becker, S. L. Communication skills: An experiment in instructional methods. Iowa City: University of Iowa, 1958.

Bereiter, C. E., and Engelmann, S. Teaching disadvantaged children in the preschool. Engelwood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1966.

Berquist, S. R. A comparative index for the linguistic-based patterns of American-English spelling. (Doctoral dissertation, Stanford University) Ann Arbor, Michigan: University Microfilms, 1967, No. 67-4319.

Braddock, R., Lloyd-Jones, R., and Schoer, L. Research in written composition. Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1963.

Buckingham, B. R., & Dolch, E. W. A combined word list. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1936.

Burks, A. T., & Guilford, P. D. Wakulla County oral language project. Elementary English, 1969, 45, 606-611.

Burns, P., & Lowe, A. The language arts in childhood education. Chicago: Rand McNally, 1966.

Burns, R. W., & Brooks, G. D. The need for curriculum reform. Educational Technology, 1970, 10, 8-12.

Buxton, E. W. An experiment to test the effects of writing frequency and guided practice upon students' skill in written expression. (Doctoral dissertation, Stanford University) Ann Arbor, Michigan: University Microfilms, 1958, No. 58-3596.

Committee on Research in Basic Skills. Ten years of research in handwriting. 1949-1959. Madison, Wisconsin: Department of Education, University of Wisconsin, 1960.

Crowley, D. P. Language programs contrasted. Elementary English, 1967, 44, 756-761.

Dale, E., & Eichholz, G. Children's knowledge of words, an interim report (September 1954 to June 1960). A Payne Fund communication project, Ohio State University. Columbus: Bureau of Educational Research and Service, 1960.

Dawson, M., et al. (Ed.) Language for daily use. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1968.

Dixon, J. Growth through English. London: Oxford University Press, 1967.

Downing, J., Fyfe, T., & Lyon, M. The effects of the initial teaching alphabet (i.t.a.) on young children's written composition. Educational Research, 1967, 9, 137-144.

Erlebacher, A., & Herrick, V. E. Quality of handwriting today and yesterday. Elementary School Journal, 1961, 62, 89-93.

Farrell, E. J. A forecast of responsibilities of secondary teachers of English 1970-2000 A.D., with implications for teacher education. (Doctoral dissertation, University of California) Ann Arbor, Mich.: University Microfilms, 1970, No. 70-17,558

Fishman, J., Keller, L., & Atkinson, R. Massed versus distributed practice in computerized spelling drills. Journal of Educational Psychology, 1968, 59, 290-296.

Fitzgerald, J. A. A basic life spelling vocabulary. Milwaukee: Bruce Publishing, 1951.

Freyberg, P. S. A comparison of two approaches to the teaching of spelling. British Journal of Educational Psychology, 1964, 34, 178-186.

Friedman, M. I. The effectiveness of machine instruction in the teaching of second and third grade spelling. The Journal of Educational Research, 1967, 60, 366-369.

Furness, E. L. Should reading and spelling be taught separately? Clearing House, 1956, 31, 67-70.

Furness, E. L. Psychological determinants of spelling success. Education, 1958, 79, 234-239.

Gates, A. I. An experimental comparison of the study-test and test-study methods in spelling. Journal of Educational Psychology, 1931, 22, 1-19.

Gladney, M. R., & Leaverton, L. A model for teaching standard English to nonstandard English speakers. Elementary English, 1968, 45, 758-763.

Golub, L. S. Linguistic structures in students' oral and written discourse. Research in the Teaching of English, 1969, 3, 70-85.

Golub, L. S., & Fredrick, W. C. Linguistic structures and deviations in children's written sentences. Paper presented at the meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Minneapolis, March, 1970.

Goodlad, J. I. Room to live and learn: Class size and room space as factors in the learning-teaching process. Childhood Education, 1954, 30, 355-361.

Greene, H. A., & Petty, W. T. Developing language skills in the elementary schools. (2nd ed.) Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1963.

Green, T. Schools and communities: A Look Forward. Harvard Educational Review, 1969, 39, 221-252.

Groff, P. J. The new Iowa spelling scale: How phonic is it? The Elementary School Journal, 1961, 62, 46-49.

Grothe, B. F. A study of spelling conscience. Elementary English, 1966, 43, 774-775.

Harris, R. J. An experimental inquiry into the functions and value of formal grammar in the teaching of English, with special reference to the teaching of correct written English to children aged twelve to fourteen. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of London, 1962.

Hodges, R. E., & Rudorf, E. H. Searching linguistics for cues for the teaching of spelling. Elementary English, 1965, 42, 527-533.

Horn, E. A basic writing vocabulary. University of Iowa Monograph in Education, 1926, No. 4.

Horn, E. Teaching spelling: What research says to the teacher. Washington, D. C.: Department of Classroom Teachers and American Educational Research Asso., 1954.

Horn, T. D. Research in spelling. Elementary English, 1960, 37, 174-177.

Horne, R. N. A study of the use of figurative language by sixth-grade children. (Doctoral dissertation, University of Georgia) Ann Arbor, Mich.: University Microfilms, 1967. No. 67-3555.

Hughes, V. A study of the relationships among selected language abilities. The Journal of Educational Research, 1953, 47, 97-106.

Instructor reports the first national survey on the status of language arts. Instructor, 1966, 75, 31-35.

Klausmeier, H. J., Goodwin, W. L., Tagatz, G. E., Otto, W. R., & Cook, D. M. Effect of three methods of instruction upon the handwriting performance of third and fourth graders. American Educational Research Journal. 1968, 5, 81-90.

Kolson, C. J. The vocabulary of kindergarten children. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, 1960.

Kincaid, G. L. Some factors affecting variations in the quality of students' writing. (Doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University) Ann Arbor, Mich.: University Microfilms, 1953. No. 5922.

Kirby, A. et al. (Ed.) Elementary School English. Palo Alto: Addison-Wesley, 1968.

Loban, W. The language of elementary school children. Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1963.

Loban, W. Teaching children who speak social class dialects. Elementary English, 1968, 45, 592-599.

Loeb, J. H. A vocabulary study of 4th, 5th, and 6th grade children. (Doctoral dissertation, University of Arkansas) Ann Arbor, Mich.: University Microfilms, 1957. No. 20,604.

Loflin, M. D. A teaching problem in nonstandard Negro dialect. The English Journal, 1967, 56, 1312-1314.

Lorge, I., & Chall, J. Estimating the size of vocabularies of children and adults: An analysis of methodological issues. The Journal of Experimental Education, 1963, 32, 147-157.

May, F. B. The effects of environment on oral language development: I. Elementary English, 1966, 43, 587-595; II. Elementary English, 1966, 43, 720-729.

Mazurkiewicz, A. J., & Lamana, P. A. Spelling achievement following i/t/a instruction. Elementary English, 1966, 43, 759-761.

Miller, B. D., & Ney, J. W. The effect of systematic oral exercises on the writing of fourth-grade students. Research in the Teaching of English, 1968, 2, 44-61.

Muller, H. J. The uses of English. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1967.
Nelson, L. N. Inquiry into the influence of the assigned topic on written language. California Journal of Educational Research, 1965, 16, 100-107.
National Council of Teachers of English, Committee to Review Curriculum Guides. Trends in curriculum guides—NCTE, Elementary English, 1968, 45, 891-897.
Olson, A. V. Vocabulary problems inherent in basal readers. Education, 1966, 86, 350-351.
O'Neil, W., & Dixon, J. Conference report: The Dartmouth seminar. Harvard Educational Review, 1969, 39, 357-372.
Personke, C., & Yee, A. H. The situational choice and the spelling program. Elementary English, 1968, 45, 32-37.
Petty, W. T. Phonetic elements as factors in spelling difficulty. The Journal of Educational Research, 1957, 51, 209-214.
Pollock, C., et al. (Ed.) Macmillan English Series. New York: Macmillan Co., 1967.
Reid, H. C. et al. (Ed.) Ginn elementary English. Boston: Ginn, 1967.
Repp, F. C. The vocabularies of five recent third grade arithmetic textbooks. Arithmetic Teacher, 1960, 7, 128-132.
Richmond, A. E. Children's spelling needs and the implications of research. Journal of Experimental Education, 1960, 29, 3-21.
Rinsland, H. D. A basic vocabulary of elementary school children. New York: Macmillan, 1945.
Russell, D. H., & Saadeh, I. Q. Qualitative levels in children's vocabularies. Journal of Educational Psychology, 1962, 53, 170-174.
Sampson, O. C. Written composition at 10 years as an aspect of linguistic development. British Journal of Educational Psychology, 1964, 34, 143-150.
Schellenberg, J. A. Group size as a factor in success of academic discussion groups. Journal of Educational Sociology, 1959, 33, 73-79.
Shane, J. C., & Shane, H. G. Cultural change and the curriculum: 1970-2000 A. D. Educational Technology, 1970, 10, 13-18.
Sharples, D. Content of creative writing. Elementary School Journal, 1968, 68, 419-426.
Shibles, B. H. How many words does a first-grade child know? Elementary English, 1959, 41, 42-47.
Slager, W. R. Effecting dialect change through oral drill. The English Journal, 1967, 56, 1166-1176.
Smith, D. V. Class size in high school English: Methods and results. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1931.
Strickland, R. The language arts in the elementary school. (3rd ed.) Lexington, Massachusetts: D. C. Heath, 1969.
Thorndike, E. L., & Lorge, I. The teacher's word book of 30,000 words. New York: Teachers College Press, 1944.
Tiedt, I. M., & Tiedt, S. W. Contemporary English in the elementary school. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1967.
Wakefield, M. W., & Silvaroli, N. J. A study of oral language patterns of low socioeconomic groups. The Reading Teacher, 1969, 22, 622-624.
Wilson, L. A. Children's realistic vocabulary. Elementary English, 1963, 40, 37-42.
Woodfin, M. J. Correlations among certain factors and the written expression of third grade children. Educational and Psychological Monographs, 1968, 28, 1237-1242.

☆GPO 1971 750-280